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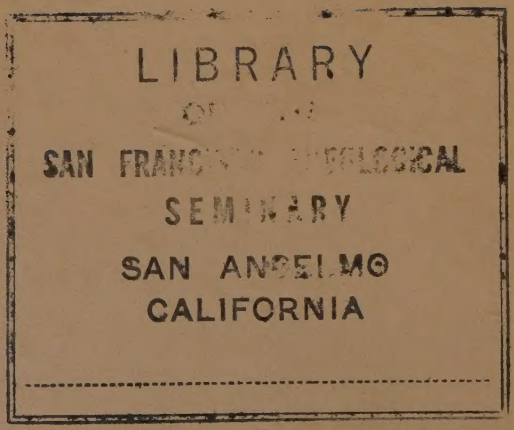
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INDIVIDUALITY AND THE MORAL AIM

IN

AMERICAN EDUCATION

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IN

AMERICAN EDUCATION

THE GILCHRIST REPORT

PRESENTED TO THE VICTORIA UNIVERSITY

MARCH 1901

BY

H. THISELTON MARK

AUTHOR OF

'AN OUTLINE OF THE HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL THEORIES IN ENGLAND'

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TO THE HON.

WILLIAM TORREY HARRIS, PH.D., LL.D

Commissioner of Education of the United States of America

WITH THE WRITER'S HIGH ESTEEM

AND PROFOUND GRATITUDE FOR HELP UNSTINTINGLY GIVEN

AND IN GRATEFUL REMEMBRANCE

OF MANY WORDS AND DEEDS OF WELCOME

FROM AMERICAN EDUCATORS

PREFACE

THE subject of the following inquiry was approved by the Victoria University and the Gilchrist Trustees, being regarded by them as cognate to some of the most urgent of the educational problems with which we are called upon to deal. That the questions are essentially English in spirit hardly needs saying. One authority, who will be frequently quoted and whose name has long been held in high honour by English educationists, Dr. W. T. Harris, the United States Commissioner of Education, has said, referring to the moral aim in education, 'The English and American school is founded on the idea that moral education is more important than intellectual.' As to the principle of individuality, reviewing the last century, Professor C. H. Herford says, 'The nineteenth century has assailed, but has not seriously modified, the stubborn individualism of the English mind. On the contrary, it has seen the English mind persistently seeking philosophic or scientific justification for its own instincts.'

The report is in the main the result of written notes of conversations taken down as the talk was proceeding, and embodies a fairly representative series of answers

to the questions, What is it that you personally are aiming at with regard to the children or the students in this school or college? and How are you seeking to accomplish it? In looking back the writer, who was too much immersed in the work itself to be fully conscious of it at the time, realises that it was a mental gymnastic of no mean difficulty to which he was soliciting teachers, principals, and superintendents whom he came upon in the very thick and drive of their practical tasks. 'Kindly ascend from the concrete to the abstract, express this practice of yours in terms of theory and ideal; and then be good enough to come down to the concrete again, and tell the path and the process of it all.' If any too willing helpers were tired out by the urging of this suit, the writer asks that his deeply felt gratitude for aid so graciously given may serve for apology.

The writer has to express his heartfelt thanks to friends and helpers both in England and America. Amongst the former are those who supplied him with valuable introductions; the council of the Owens College, and the committee of the Day Training College, for granting a furlough which made it possible to visit America whilst the schools and colleges were in session, especially to Professor Withers, who assumed sole charge of the Men's Day Training Department, and has in other ways shown much helpful interest in the report; and in no small measure to the Gilchrist Founders and Trustees for funds, granted through the Victoria University, covering a large part of the cost of the

inquiry. Amongst American educators, whilst so many were helpful, the writer feels bound to express his special indebtedness to Dr. W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education; to Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, Dean of the Department of Philosophy, Columbia University; the Dean and staff, and several of the graduate-students of Teachers' College, Columbia University; Mr. Ossian Lang; the superintendents and supervisors of the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, and Brooklyn (New York City), and of Washington, Cleveland, Minneapolis, and Indianapolis; to Miss Blow; to the principal and teachers of the Ethical Society (Workingman's) School (New York), the University Elementary School and the Forestville School (Chicago); to the principals of the Chicago Kindergarten College; to the director and staff of the Child Study Department, Chicago; and to Mr. J. L. Hughes, of Toronto.

P.S.—It should perhaps be added that the report refers almost entirely to public education, though a few privately supported schools were visited, and that this (combined with the writer's habitual outlook through his work in a training college) accounts for the references here and there made to English education being also almost entirely to the public elementary schools.

H. Thiselton Mark.

Owens College, Manchester:
May 1901.

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Part I

INDIVIDUALITY
IN
AMERICAN EDUCATION

CHAPTER I

THE PRINCIPLE OF INDIVIDUALITY IN EDUCATION

'The mass of mankind, the working body, which determines in the end the fate of the world . . . are what the teachers make them.'

THERE are two chief centres around which at the present moment almost the whole of American school problems—and not a few college and university problems—range themselves; these are, on the one hand, the meaning and the means of moral education, and, on the other, the intimately related problem of individuality in education. Upon the former question, so far as it affects the schools, the writer has already presented a report to the Board of Education for England and Wales. The more general bearings of the problem upon the home, the Church, the college, and the university, and through all upon the State, will be briefly considered here. The second topic will, however, form the main subject of the present essay. What do American educators mean when they speak of individuality in education? How do they seek to carry out the principle in practice? To these two questions the first portion of the following report will be devoted. The remaining sections will deal with the more general subject of the moral aim in education.

It was reported by an interviewer as being the deepest impression which the Shah of Persia carried away with him after a visit to England, that though he

had seen great crowds of people, he felt that each crowd was a mass of units rather than a mass of humanity, that each man was conscious that he counted, his standing room being his by right, and his 'huzza' a free expression of personal feeling. It is this trait which has given definite direction to our political history, and so deep-seated a national characteristic makes its demand upon the thought of the educator. Educationally, it means that the individual cannot be lost sight of in the class. It implies the application of the democratic principle to education.

Since, to go no further back than the seventeenth century, Milton championed liberty of utterance, Cromwell the rights of the governed, and Locke the moral respect due to the learner, the education of the English youth must be of such a nature that in all acquisition there shall be a conscious expression of himself and the putting forth of personal power. We hear now and again of the need of applying some principle of individualisation in the case of boys and girls of exceptional genius. But will not a really successful educational method aim to apply the principle universally? Each child in virtue of an Anglo-Saxon birth and history, a history written within him by descent and heredity as well as read by him in books containing his country's name, aims at individuality. If a teaching precept could be grounded upon these indications of our mental tendency, it would be that in all acquisition each individual must be made to feel himself actively at work in pursuit of some end. This was Dr. Arnold's class-method, and it has never been surpassed. The educational problem which most urgently awaits solution is how to cultivate the teaching habit which, whilst it does not overlook the power that resides in numbers

bent upon a common end, yet touches and directs the individual activity and interest.

In one sense we are bound, as Sir Joshua Fitch has said, to strike an average ; but, on the other hand, we can never afford to forget that we are dealing with individuals as well as with classes. One would in no way plead for individual teaching. English individuality is of a type that is best developed in the crowd. And, as just stated, one of the crucial questions in education is, how to awaken individual effort and to use it to the greatest advantage in the collective work of the school. Our teaching methods will count for very much in this direction. Many ways will suggest themselves to a teacher who has tact, and knows the children he is teaching, which take up no more time and yet enable it to be seen that he is dealing with a cluster of individuals, and not merely with a collective whole. To quote the historic illustration already referred to, Dr. Arnold made use of questions in his teaching, first of all, in order to arouse a questioning attitude in the mind of the learner, and, secondly, he put *real questions* (not so much tests as *inquiries*) to show that he was working at the subject along with the pupil. 'When a boy asks, Why is this?' said a successful teacher, 'I know he has got somewhere.' When, further, he feels that his teacher is his friend, helping him to try his intellectual limbs, and ready to pick him up if he stumbles, we have one of the secrets of enthusiasm in the schoolroom. Many boys have powers which they do not know of. Experience has shown that with no other spur than that of knowing that they may go forward without fear, and that failure will not be permitted to bring disappointment, as many as twenty out of seventy boys in Standard III in an elementary school may be passed on at once into

Standard V., and are often the leaven of the Standard to which they are so promoted.

In any case, to revert to the postulate underlying the whole of the present inquiry, we shall not reach a point of rest in matters of education until our theory and practice have a characteristic accent of nationality. Whatever educational thinkers and reformers we may follow in points of detail or even in fundamental principles, correspondence to national characteristics is almost necessarily the goal of our educational effort. It may be useful at the outset to adopt a working summary of what the national characteristics are which ought to find embodiment and expression in our systems of education. Montesquieu has said of us : ' This is the nation in the world which has best known how to avail itself at the same time of those three great things, religion, trade, and liberty.'[1] If we accept these words as suggesting a tentative *à priori* summing up of the English boy, we should look for a religious instinct (containing more of the elements of original dignity than of consciousness of original sin), a distinct individuality, and a practical tendency in all things. It is with the second of these points that we are here to deal —a problem, therefore, having its essential points of contact with the child-life and child-nature around us.

One was prepared to find the United States a happy hunting-field in such an inquiry. In an article on ' The New Education ' in the ' Andover Review ' of November, 1888, Professor Palmer, of Harvard University, says, ' The test of high character is the amount of freedom it will absorb without going to pieces.' Few, doubtless, would expect to attain to the individuality of a

[1] ' C'est le peuple du monde qui a le mieux su se prévaloir à la fois de ces trois grandes choses : la religion, le commerce, la liberté.' *De l'Esprit des Lois*, bk. xx. ch. vii.

Walt Whitman, in whom 'latitude widens, longitude lengthens;'

> Within me zones, seas, cataracts, plants, volcanoes, groups, Malaysia, Polynesia, and the great West Indian Islands.

Yet we may endeavour to place ourselves in the right perspective with regard to such a conception of individuality, by realising what culture (for it could not come by cramming) could produce such an identification of personality with world-wide, almost star-high, interests. Each rightly developed individual is in himself, if philosophers say truly, a little world. Is it not, indeed, the spirit of this new or modern philosophy which has contributed largely to the 'new' education?

It is something more than an accident that Descartes and Comenius belong to the same century. Descartes commenced to build up a modern philosophy—the self the central fact, the criterion of all certainty, on the postulate—'I think, therefore I am.' From Comenius, a contemporary of Descartes, dates the 'new education,' as a conception reducible to practice. The educational movement, like the philosophic, takes its origin in a breach with authority, which was the characteristic note of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; but its positive side is a new interpretation of the nature of the individual child, as, to use the term employed by Comenius, a 'microcosm,' in whom the powers of self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control[1] exist already in the germ, it being the function of education to develop them.

Individuality in education may stand for two very

[1] Comenius states that it is the threefold aim of education—'Se, et secum omnia, nôsse; regere; et ad Deum dirigere.' 'That man should know all things, himself included; have power over all things, himself included; and refer all this to God.' The seeds of all three forms of culture Comenius believed to be in man by nature.

distinct things. It may mean either (1) the reaching of the individual learner in the mass, meeting him at the point of his attainment, and helping him in his special difficulties (this is a matter of class-management or organisation); or (2) the building up of individuality or personality, in which case we are dealing with one of the fundamental questions of educational philosophy. In the latter instance we are broaching the problem of personality, and in what it consists. But with both of these meanings of individuality the moral aim in education is concerned. In the one case, we are aiming to secure a vital contact between teacher and pupil, providing stimulus and removing discouragement; in the other case, we are in search of the means of building up character in its entirety. The former interpretation of the principle of individuality ends in a plea for scope and elbow-room that the human unit may develop to his individual utmost; the latter considers rather the development of the individual life in its relations to the social whole, and so the real enrichment and enlargement of individuality through its dependence upon and reciprocal relations to society. Dr. W. T. Harris, the United States Commissioner of Education, was so anxious that the more philosophical interpretation should be put upon the principle, though without in any way excluding the question of organisation, that he forwarded to the writer the following letter, which states in some fulness the best American point of view:

I think that you will get nothing satisfactory as to the question of individualism, because there is a metaphysical catch to this part of the investigation.[1] The history of the

[1] This 'metaphysical catch' was met with in more forms than one during the prosecution of the inquiry: but especially in one school, which

United States shows that persons who go out to the frontier as pioneers prove themselves to be very full of resources in the way of subduing the wilderness and converting it to human uses, destroying wild beasts, defeating the Indians and banditti, and such matters. This would be called individualism ordinarily, but it is a very small part of individualism. The individualism which one wishes to cultivate in urban society fits one to become self-directive among his fellow men. In order to hold one's own in the midst of the urban civilisation it is necessary to have a knowledge of human nature and a knowledge of the motives and purposes of the civilisation in which one lives. It should enable one to select his vocation intelligently and make a success of it in a competitive civilisation. The one with small individualism takes the initiative from others and does not strike out for himself. He is dragged or pushed along, and does not contribute his quota of directive power to the community. This second kind of individuality, which can hold its own in an urban civilisation, is scarcely considered by most of those in this country who talk or write on the development of individualism, and the very best training for this kind of individualism is popularly supposed to have the effect of obliterating individualism.

The development of individuality can take two directions. First, that of resistance to the influences or demands of the social whole. This development of the individual makes him disobedient at school and a criminal in society, and converts his career into a zero by attracting against him the organised forces of the community.

Secondly, the development of individuality may take the normal direction of mastering the motives and purposes of the social whole and growing into a leader of some one of its manifold interests. This lies in the direction of attaining skill in a chosen industry and in attaining through letters a knowledge of science and philosophy which are social aggregates of observation and reflection; a knowledge of history which

seems to have set out upon a research, comparable (in the light of recent philosophy) to the old puzzle of the hen and the egg, as to whether society was before the individual or the individual before society.

shows the nature and behaviour of social organisations, especially of the State and Church and civil society ; an acquaintance with literature which reveals the depth of emotion and feeling, and shows how feelings become conscious thoughts and actions, literature in this respect being the study, *par excellence*, for giving a knowledge of human nature. Besides this, the pupil needs a training in the control of his individualism for purposes of intelligent co-operation with others, and he gets this in a large school better than in a small school, and he gets it in a school far better than with a private tutor or by himself in the family.

In treating of the principle of individuality as a factor in American education the inquiry will follow three main lines: I. Individuality in Educational Organisation ; II. Individuality in Class-management ; III. Child Study. The result of the inquiry will, it is believed, be to show that Herbart's rule 'to leave the individuality of the pupil untouched as far as possible,' is not in conflict with his other demand for the cultivation of 'a balanced, all-embracing many-sidedness.'

CHAPTER II

INDIVIDUALITY AND SCHOOL ORGANISATION

'Never rest till you have got all the fixed machinery for work, the best possible. The waste in a Teacher's workshop is the lives of men.'

THE school organisation of the ordinary American city consists of a Board of Education, which carries out the few general regulations of the State, and for the rest administers freely the educational machinery of the city (the board is sometimes elective, sometimes appointive); the city superintendent of schools, often with a number of associate or assistant superintendents; a director or organising secretary, or clerk to the Board of Education, not unlike our clerk to the School Board; and supervisors, appointed to assist the superintendent in the oversight of certain grades or of certain subjects, such as art, music, manual training, sewing. Under the best conditions, the principals are also to be reckoned as a part of the system of organisation, directing the work of the teachers and pupils in their school. Where the principal is in this way the supervisor of his or her own school the best conditions obtain; where the 'principal of the building' has also hour by hour throughout the day the care of a grade, and an external 'supervising principal' is responsible in all save minor matters for five or six schools, the conditions, so far as principalship goes, are at their worst. But to speak generally, is it

not self-evident that if individuality is to be looked for in the child, it must also be looked for in the teacher, and if in the teacher, in the principal, and if in the principal, in those whose regulations he administers, especially the supervisors and the city superintendent? Even though one bears in mind the caution given by Dean Russell, of Teachers College, New York, that one cannot judge from the machinery, but must judge from the working, one cannot but realise to how large an extent the school is shaped by the forces which are behind it.

The city superintendent is really the key to the whole situation;[1] and, considering that he is so, he often works in an American city under vexations from which, in all conscience, he ought to be free. He is anything but a permanent official. A change in the political complexion of the Board of Education may seal his fate. To meet with really excellent men educationists to the core, who had the never-absent consciousness of their need for a majority on the Board of Education to secure their re-election year by year, was one of the most disturbing features of the writer's inquiry. The wonder is that American cities are so

[1] What a city's schools can be without the superintendent is shown by Dr. Rice in his references to Philadelphia. 'The public schools of Philadelphia were left without supervision until 1883. Before that time the most chaotic condition prevailed, for the reason that each individual school was conducted according to the whims of its principal, who, though simply a class teacher, prepared the course of studies and regulated the examinations and promotions without regard to what was going on in other schools. The schools were then, as now, governed by two distinct bodies: the Central Board, whose members—one from each ward—are appointed by the judges of the Court of Common Pleas; and a Local Board of thirteen members for each ward, twelve of the members being elected by the people, the thirteenth being a member of the Central Board.'—*The Public School System of the United States*, p. 148.

well served, and that men of such earnestness and ability are tempted into what strikes a stranger as so precarious a service. That the thing works out in practice better than it looks in theory must be taken for granted. Under more ideal and liberal conditions of appointment and tenure of office, good as the work is that is being done, there is little doubt that more would be accomplished. Public feeling is setting strongly in the direction of separating the schools from political influences. A strong citizens' association would probably be adequate in most cases to lifting the superintendency out of the arena of politics altogether. Nor would it seem too great a sacrifice, considering that it would be made in the cause of education, if school officials should become practically neutral in politics, as English inspectors of schools and training colleges, as a matter of professional etiquette, are understood to be in recognition of the fact that they serve under either political party without prejudice. All residents in Washington, the seat of Government, are disfranchised; and if to be non-political were a tacit understanding in reference to the position of school superintendent, it would probably strengthen him educationally in a way that would be altogether out of proportion to what he would feel to lose politically. Even as it is, the position of city superintendent of schools is one of those which a strong man with an enthusiasm for education would naturally covet. He needs to have 'head, heart, hand'—intellectual power with adequate academic and professional knowledge, moral influence through tact, sympathy, and earnestness, and sufficient experience in educational matters to give balance and direction to his initiative. Such a man may make his influence felt upon the schools and the educational spirit of a city within twelve months

of his assuming office. There are superintendents who are counted amongst the great social and moral forces of the community in the midst of which they labour. Such would be Mr. J. L. Hughes, of Toronto ; Mr. N. C. Dougherty, of Peoria ; and Mr. L. H. Jones, whose superintendency at Indianapolis is still spoken of as an influence on the schools and on the public feeling towards the schools, though it is seven or eight years since he left Indianapolis for Cleveland. Others might probably be named, but these stand out by general consent.

Fundamentally, the city superintendent is responsible for the continued training of the teachers throughout his schools. It is his business to be in touch with the most progressive thought and movements in education, and to bring his knowledge to bear upon the internal administration and the work of the teachers in the schools. Often, too, he is an expert with theories or methods of his own. It may have been the successful application of some such methods elsewhere which commended him to the notice of the Board of Education in the city to which he is appointed. School building and oversight of the business of the board are not his task, at any rate, where the completest and most typical organisation exists. He is responsible for the teaching in the schools and for the improvement of that teaching upon whatever lines suggest themselves as best suited to the city to which he is appointed. The superintendent, however sure he may be of his ground, generally wins his way rather by tact than by aggressiveness ; he is often able to effect changes in the spirit of the school and home training of children, and to make parents more hearty in their support of both school and teacher, and more ready to fall in with their aims and

methods. The views of the superintendent make themselves felt especially in the discipline of the schools, and through them of the homes as well. At Dayton, Ohio, according to the president of the board, corporal punishment has decreased fully fifty per cent. within the two years of Dr. Hailmann's superintendency. Technically the superintendent is responsible to the Board of Education, who select and appoint him, and to whom he is expected to look for guidance if he is in any doubt. But one may hear of a newly appointed superintendent listening to his board as they explain to him what they expect of him and what they will do on their part, and then quietly saying what *he* intends to do and upon what points, as, for example, the selection of teachers, he is not going to be dictated to. Not many men could do this without some appearance of presumption. In this one case, a considerable section of the press gave the superintendent their support, and commended him for rating his independence higher than the retention of his position. In another noteworthy instance the superintendent has been risking one of the most commanding positions in American education by his fearless advocacy of a policy different from that of his board. In another instance, such collision has led recently to the resignation of his position by the superintendent in one of the largest cities, and his acceptance of the presidency of a State university.

The personal factor counts for most, therefore, in any attempt to estimate in what the scope for the display of individuality on the part of the city superintendent consists. In Massachusetts the statutes give the superintendent only one item of authority: he may in his own right and person sign an employment certificate. For the rest he is responsible to the school committees

(Boards of Education). As a matter of fact, of course, he has the care and control of the schools under the school committees. If he proves himself a capable man, the tendency generally is to give him more and more power; and another perfectly understandable thing, which was referred to by the Hon. Frank A. Hill, State Secretary of Education, Massachusetts, is that usually the abler the people forming the school committee the more willing are they to restrict themselves to purely legislative rather than executive functions: the educational duties are entrusted to the superintendents, the business department to special agents. This American habit of trusting the expert early impresses the visitor. If the required expert cannot be discovered, money must be spent to produce him, and then in the average of cases he is given a free hand. For example, a commercial high school is being organised in New York; those having the matter in hand, explaining the scheme, describe the kind of man they want to take the directorship: if they cannot find such a man, they would select the likeliest man there is and give him a year's training in Europe and elsewhere, so that he might come to them equipped with the best information. The superintendent, similarly, is in the position of a trusted expert, and has a free hand if he is not too radical in his changes, and has the gift of statesmanship which prevents his action from being too far in advance of prevailing standards. Teachers yield him a willing loyalty; it is felt that he is there because he is competent.

A very popular superintendent, both with teachers and citizens, was Mrs. Ella Young, of Chicago University, formerly member of the board of superintendents, and on more than one occasion spoken of in

connection with the city superintendency. She said that the power of the superintendent to influence a given school was mainly a question of his or her moral influence with the principal ; the Chicago theory being that the principal is professionally responsible for his own school and teachers. What a superintendent can do largely depends on his principals. In Chicago there are eight districts, each with its superintendent, and a city superintendent over all. Some have contended that the great difference existing amongst the Chicago schools arises from the different views, &c., of the superintendents. But as a matter of fact in the same district adjacent schools manifest the same differences. Mrs. Young thinks that the difference arises rather from the difficulty certain principals have of seeing the weak side to their own work. Not that they intentionally refrain from acting on the suggestion of the district superintendents, but that it is difficult to make them conscious that their work is of poor quality. Whilst the better and more progressive principals take the superintendents' suggestions made at principals' meetings, the inertia of the stationary principal prevents the same good effects often just where they are most needed. Under such conditions two things may avail : in the first place, personal representations on the part of the superintendent ; but secondly, and more especially, a watching for all the good one can see in a school and commending that. This nursing of the health spot, a 'sloughing process,' as Dr. Shimer of New York calls it, has succeeded in many cases in creating a new ambition for excellence resulting in vastly improved conditions. One of the most successful in the use of personal contact and personal encouragement is Mr. J. L. Hughes, of Toronto. He has seen twenty-five years' service in the one

position, has appointed practically all the teachers, and knows their work thoroughly. His theory is that 'the superintendent ought to be frank enough and unconventional enough to tell the teacher what his best power is, and to give him confidence in himself. The best thing I can do for the teachers of Toronto is to reveal to them their best power. Let me once say to the backward teacher (not worth a row of pins) "That's fine, I never saw it done so before," and such a teacher holds himself up and is never the same again.'

'The peculiarity of the American system is,' said one, 'that the superintendent is as free as he can possibly be, granted tact and discretion on his part.' Yet with the exception of some three or four places where special rights are assigned to the superintendent in virtue of his office (e.g. Buffalo, New Haven, Cleveland, Indianapolis), all his duties are delegated to him by the Board of Education or school committee of which he is the executive. The superintendent who consults his teachers and discusses his proposals with them beforehand, and who keeps in touch with public sentiment, has all the scope he requires for progressive work, and may almost invariably count upon adequate support. He is really working in line with the best public spirit of the city which he serves. In describing 'the twentieth century superintendent' at a recent gathering of the Association of Commissioners and Superintendents of New York State, one of the speakers selected as amongst the 'essentials' in his qualifications, the consciousness that he is appointed to guard and foster the most important interests that can pertain to a State—her 'citizens in the making.' That is the prevalent thought amongst all classes as to the mission of the public schools. The theory of the superintendent's position and duties is

well stated, and taken from such a connection is well worth quoting, in the Report of the Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools:

Supervision is one of the vital needs of the rural schools, since most of their teachers are inexperienced. Rural schools suffer from lack of trained teachers. In them, as a general thing, are young graduates from the village high school, or some favourite among neighbouring families, or a type of ancient teacher whose placid life is not disturbed by the vexing problems of his profession. This raw material must be developed, made shapely, orderly, and systematic, if time is to be saved to the children, and schools properly supported. . . .

Teaching is a great art, based on a profound science. The supervisor is the expert who has given this art and science his careful attention, and whose business it is both to know how to teach, and to show others the way of teaching. He can in some measure compensate for the lack of skilled work in the school by closely supervising and guiding inexperienced teachers and showing them what to do. Not only must he know how to teach, but he must know how to instruct others in the art and science of teaching. He must be a skilled teacher of teachers. The presence of skilled supervision has been the salvation of many schools.

It is one province of supervision in the country school to bring teachers into contact with each other, to illustrate better ways of teaching, to break up the isolation and monotony of rural school life, and to take to the doors and homes of people and teachers alike the life and freshness which have been the result of research and study on the part of the best minds in the profession. . . .

We need everywhere trained superintendents of schools. 'Supervision of schools should rank next in importance to the instruction in schools; indeed, so necessary to successful instruction is competent supervision that the two should receive together the watchful oversight of the state' (New Jersey State Report, 1894). The best work of a supervisor is his skill in selecting teachers. . . .

Attention is also called to the power which the supervisor can exert through rightly conducted teachers' meetings, institutes, associations, and round tables. Here he may meet the teachers under his direction, and make use of the information which he has gathered in visiting their schools. From free and open discussions by the teachers he will get an insight into their habits of thought and their methods of expression. Such meetings help to break up the unsocial character of rural teachers by bringing them into contact, so that each learns something from the experience of all the others. The most deadening influence about the country school is its isolation. Nothing is more potent in overcoming this than frequent gatherings in which teachers, school officers, and parents freely discuss matters of common interest. To encourage such meetings is one of the duties incumbent upon the supervisor. Without being too prominent he may still be the inspiring spirit, guiding, directing, and stimulating the tone and energies of all who participate in the proceedings.

Whilst education as a theory and practice is making such rapid strides as it is in America, expert supervision is absolutely essential. The writer has shown elsewhere the significance of the school movement of the last twenty-five years—the 'new education' as it is commonly called by American educators—as an American movement. The superintendent is also an American product. Practically unknown fifty years ago, 'his office has been logically evolved with the quite original system of American public school education.' The movement of the last quarter of a century is, in turn, largely due to two ex-superintendents—a man who combines American shrewdness with an almost Pestalozzian enthusiasm, and who twenty-five years ago assumed the superintendency of the schools at Quincy, Massachusetts, Colonel Francis W. Parker,[1] and the thinker who at that time

[1] Mr. C. F. Carroll, of Worcester, says, 'No candid man can object to the statement that the force which set in motion this tremendous

was superintendent of schools at St. Louis, and publishing school reports which were read and debated in all parts of the country, Dr. W. T. Harris. Probably no men have ever wielded such an influence upon actual school practice in their own lifetime with the exceptions of Sturm and, possibly, Horace Mann.

Two of the chief functions of the superintendent, as indicated above, are the appointment of teachers and the holding of teachers' meetings (mass or sectional meetings according to circumstances); but a third, of very far-reaching influence, is the issuing of an annual report upon the condition and progress of the schools. To these reports a student of American education finds himself at once indebted, many of them being extremely able contributions to current educational literature, and all valuable as showing the conditions obtaining in the city, and the ideals which are cherished for the city schools. Some superintendents are strong on the administrative side, others in their grasp of educational philosophy, others on the sociological aspects of education. The aim throughout is, to quote the title of a paper read by Dr. Harris before the Department of Superintendence in 1899, 'to make good teachers out of poor ones.' That, said the Doctor in conversation, is a thing that good superintendents can do almost infallibly. Amongst the means suggested are weekly conferences with the principals of schools; sectional or general meetings for direct pedagogical study and discussion; meetings arranged for the teachers in which subjects other than pedagogical are taken up, such as art or literature.

activity in elementary education was inaugurated by Col. Francis W. Parker in his work at Quincy and in his utterances at the Summer school at Martha's Vineyard, and later at educational gatherings all over the country.'

Associate Superintendent A. W. Edson, of New York City, kindly allowed the writer to see a statement which he had prepared for the superintendent of the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, Mr. John Jasper:

I regard my work as primarily in the line of assisting and inspiring principals and teachers to higher ideals and better methods. . . . I look upon the rating of teachers as of secondary importance. . . . I visit each school in my group each month, and visit my larger schools two or three times each month, and observe the work of each teacher in my group three or four times during the year. . . . This allows a rating that is fairer than is possible after only one visit, and at the time of the second or third visit I am often able to suggest much more to the principal and individual teacher than at the time of the first visit. . . . I meet the principal and teachers of each department occasionally—some two or three times during the year—and mention some of the more apparent weaknesses in class work observed in that school, and consider the best way and means of teaching some special subject under consideration. I make full use of the blackboard in outlining and illustrating the topic, and try to leave something as the outcome. The teachers are often ready to ask questions, to give their experience, and to join in discussion. I find these conferences a great economy of time and effort. . . .

I speak to the principals freely, from time to time, of the special points that need attention in the organisation, management, and work of the school or department. I try to leave the impression with principals and teachers that I am a co-worker, sympathetic and charitable, and yet deeply interested in securing the best results possible.

A copy of the points considered in connection with schools by the visiting superintendents at Brooklyn was supplied to the writer by Associate Superintendent J. Haaren.

PRINCIPAL'S RATINGS.

1. *School Administration in General.*

Opening and closing.
Recesses.
Early dismissal of individuals.
Carrying out of course of study.
Programmes.
Oversight of class records and report cards.
Homework.
Methods prescribed.
Co-ordination of work as between grades.
Promotion of individuality among teachers and pupils.[1]
Promotions and reductions.
Examination and inspection of classes.
Text books, illustrative materials and apparatus.
Management of heating and ventilation.
Management of light in class-rooms.
Seating of pupils.

2. *Management of Teachers.*

Teachers' meetings.
Oversight of plans of work.
Inspiring teachers.
Means employed for improvement of old and assistance of new teachers.
Passing judgment on teachers.
Example set in attendance and punctuality.

3. *Management of Pupils.*

Discipline.
Support of teachers.
Treatment of lateness and truancy.
Moral treatment of pupils.
Corporal punishment and suspensions.
Informal suspension.

[1] *Nota bene*, as bearing upon subject of present report.

4. Records, Reports, &c.

Records required by sect. 298 of by-laws of School Board.
Correctness of monthly and special reports.
Promptness in sending in reports.

TEACHER'S RATINGS.

ENGLISH			
Reading . . .		MATHEMATICS .	
Composition . .		HISTORY . .	
Grammar (Language) .		GEOGRAPHY . .	
Spelling . . .		SCIENCE . .	
Writing . . .		NATURE . .	

Examination results . . . . . .

Skill in teaching, . . Moral influence, ...

Skill in governing, . . Health and habits, ...

More might be written about the relations of the superintendent to the school board or school committee, and by way of showing the tendency of legislation in favour of universal superintendence of schools both town and country. All that can be done is to refer to a small section of the literature of the subject,[1] and to a brief

[1] Article in *The Record* (Macmillan) for October, 1899, by Dr. Frank A. Hill on 'Local Control in School Administration' (Massachusetts); 'Supervision of Schools in Massachusetts,' by A. W. Edson; 'Supervision Data for Massachusetts' (F. A. Hill) 1900; 'City and Town Supervision of Schools,' by J. T. Prince; 'The Business Side of City School Systems,' by Dr. B. A. Hinsdale ('Studies in Education'); *Educational Review*, January, 1895, 'Powers and Duties of School Superintendents;' 'Report of the Committee of Fifteen;' *School Journal* and other educational papers.

reference in the note at the end of the present chapter.

The supervisors, whether of special subjects or of specified grades (usually the primary, which are the first three or first four grades in the public schools), are, to all intents and purposes, assistants to the superintendents in their own specified departments. Similar principles, therefore, rule their work. They confer with and are under the general leadership of the superintendent. The schools of a city seldom fail to make a name for themselves when there is a good mutual understanding between an able superintendent and his supervisors. One might instance in proof of this Minneapolis, Washington, and Indianapolis in the days already referred to,[1] when Dr. Rice visited it in common with other cities and published his famous articles in the 'Forum.' An experienced observer said of Miss Cropsey, the extremely able supervisor of primary grades at Indianapolis, 'She is a very rare woman. She has the faculty of discriminating and choosing the best. She constantly suggests things that will be helpful to the individual teacher. She sees vividly, also, the great possibility of the unkempt boy, adopts the vision and acts up to it. A good many of us see and forget it; she takes it right in.' When first appointed to give higher tone to the primary work in the schools of the city, she did not commence a course of studies in pedagogy with the young teachers under her care; but started courses of literature, in the hope of first broadening their mental horizon, and so creating the taste for knowledge, without which, as a personal possession, no teacher can hope to impart it to her pupils. As a result of her spirit and her methods it is a common remark

[1] Page 12.

outside her own city, that the schools of Indianapolis will never lack a certain distinction so long as they are under her influence. Almost as unique in her own department is Miss Seegmiller, the supervisor of drawing and art work in the Indianapolis schools. The spirit of all her work is expressed in one of her own quotations from Lowell:

> Something the soul of man to lift
> From the tiresome earth and to make him see
> How beautiful common things can be;
> How heaven may be glimpsed through a wayside tree;
> The gift of an artist's eye.

The presence of such specialists having direction of the children's efforts at self-expression with brush and pencil, is in part cause of, in part supplementary to, a great movement towards the beautiful and the study of the beautiful, which has made the American schoolroom a scene of brightness and of æsthetic culture. Travelling from Worcester to Minneapolis, and south through Indianapolis, one meets with a constant succession of class-rooms made beautiful by the teacher's skill, or the children's purchases (and often by the children's own efforts), which answers to Thring's demand that 'lesson-rooms, and the surroundings of lessons, should by their beauty, or their fitness, as the case may be, give honour to lessons.' In such an outline of lessons in art as Miss Seegmiller has drawn up for the several grades of the Indianapolis schools, the child's near interests, his love of natural objects, and his love of well-chosen verse are brought together with the view of making the art work part of the child's personal experience. In the preface to a little handbook for October, containing suggestions for the interrelation of nature study, literature, art, and com-

position, Miss Seegmiller says, 'It is hoped that these gleanings from the poets, presenting the characteristics of one of the most beautiful months of the year, may aid us in our constant seeking for an ever closer, loving and reverent companionship with nature.' And elsewhere, in the outline of lessons for the grades, 'Whenever the teacher is able to lift the child up to be possessed of a new thought, to see a new beauty, she becomes nature's interpreter, and whatever enriches the thought and exalts the feeling influences the art expression.'

Minneapolis owes the marked excellence of its schools to the daily co-operation of the supervisors of primary work, art, music, and manual training. The correlation of studies is no artifice, it does not come *ab extra*, but resides essentially in the studies themselves, which are correlated in the collective thought of the supervisors respectively responsible for them before they are issued in the form of courses to the schools. With this co-operation of the supervisors the superintendent is in heartiest accord.

In a special report of the eleventh State exhibition of drawing in the public schools of Massachusetts, held in Boston from September 27 to October 2, 1899, mention is made of the way in which the freedom of the supervisors leads to freedom in the children's work. 'The general use of colour in the public schools has come within the last decade. . . . The colouring was often too intense and crude, but it betokened a health, a freedom, a delight in being alive, hitherto unknown in our public school drawing. A second prominent feature was the nature drawing. During these last years nature has come into the schools like a flood, inundating every grade and penetrating every topic of instruction. . . . The third notable element was freedom. . . . The

supervisors of drawing also enjoy perfect freedom. No two courses were identical in detail, hence several casual observers affirmed that the exhibition lacked the unity which comes from a common aim or purpose. . . . Free individuality is the ground of art. Beauty will not come at the call of a legislature, nor will it repeat in England or America its history in Greece.[1] . . . There can never be an inflexible course in art instruction.' One seems to be able to trace in the world's art a continuous emancipation of the human spirit passing from extreme east to the new world of the west. Amongst Oriental nations their art is expressive of man's subjection and awe in presence of nature—the glaring, the huge, even the hideous mark their work. In Greece, man rose to equality with nature. The Christian art of Europe, when true to itself, portrays the triumph of spirit over matter. But the new art instinct of America is one which aims at self-expression in a new and more democratic sense. Each child takes brush or pencil to express what is in himself of appreciation of the beautiful and response to its appeal. This seems to be the meaning of the art impulse which is taking possession of the American schools,[2] and of the individuality to which it aspires. But this could never come about if art supervisors and art teachers were not free.

Of course, the supervisor has also to conduct classes for the teachers. In this way, by meetings which teachers are expected to attend, the school day being shortened by an hour occasionally to enable them to be present without demanding more of their time, and by voluntary meetings of teachers for more advanced work,

[1] Cf. Emerson on 'Art.'

[2] The American Educational Exhibit sent to Paris for the 1900 Exhibition gave ample proof of the impulse here referred to.

the supervisor, of whatever subject, is able to influence the whole of the work of the city in his or her department. If there is one rank of educators to whom American teaching owes more of its conspicuous brightness and rapid improvement than to any other, it would be the supervisors of primary grades. Such supervisors appear to exist in the great majority of cities; and certainly it is in the primary grades that the excellence of American public elementary school education at the present moment lies.

Only a word need be said about the school principal. He is in theory the critic-teacher, and professor of pedagogy to his staff, as well as the administrator of the school, and counsellor of pupils and parents. Where a principal is set free for the supervision of his or her own building, and is allowed a considerable amount of liberty and initiative, one finds solid work even in places where a progressive school spirit has not yet come. In Cincinnati, which has been resting for a fairly long time on its former fame, some of the best teachers were found. One could only trace this to the strong group of men who are at the head of the individual schools. Many cities, of which Brooklyn is a sample, make it their policy to allow a principal, in whom the superintendent has confidence, to try experiments on his own lines, either in teaching or school organisation. In other places there are 'supervising principals,' a sort of go-between, part school principal, part assistant superintendent; in reality, one would suppose, the latter. But where this name, given to assistant or district superintendents, is made an excuse for keeping the teacher actually in charge of the school (called the 'principal of the building') engaged the whole day with one of the grades, there may be supervision—in some instances there is considerable

flutter caused by this supervision—but there is nothing that can fairly be called principalship. How admirably some of the acting principals of buildings taught their grade, received messages from all parts of the building, and welcomed visitors, cannot be told in a sentence; but it did seem one of the essentials of the arrangement, that, with such a multiplicity of calls upon their attention, they should, if not entirely set free, have a minimum of two or three lesson periods daily for the work of supervision and school administration.

But the theory of the principalship of American schools, and in the majority of places visited the actual practice, goes far beyond the matters just mentioned. Three methods, says Dr. W. H. Maxwell, city superintendent of schools in New York, ought to be employed by all principals in the discharge of their pedagogical functions towards their staff—private criticism, the giving of model lessons, general meetings and grade meetings.[1] 'The theory is sometimes advanced that if there are only superintendents enough to inspect and examine schools and make suggestions or give orders to principals and teachers, it does not make very much difference what kind of man the principal may be. I have been much impressed with the falsity of this notion since visiting some of the schools of the former City of New York, now the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx. In proportion to the number of pupils and teachers, the old City of New York had a larger number of superintendents for its schools than any other large city in the world. Nor will it be denied that these superintendents

[1] Identical proposals were made by Dury in *The Reformed School*, 1649. The quotation from Dr. Maxwell is from his report for 1898–99, reprinted in part in the Class Management Number (March, 1900) of the *New York Teachers' Monographs*.

are able, experienced, and energetic men. If the theory is true that superintendents, through periodical inspections, can make good schools, then the public schools in New York City ought to have become good schools. Yet nothing has struck me so forcibly in visiting these schools as the inequality in their characteristics. Some schools I have found that are truly admirable in every respect. In all such cases the principals are all that principals ought to be. Other schools I have seen in which the order was of that cast-iron kind which represses every genial impulse of the soul; . . . in which many of the teachers are sunk in ruts thirty years deep. . . . The efforts of the superintendents, through inspection of the teachers' work and examination of classes, had almost entirely failed to work any appreciable change in the character of the school. I do not say that superintendents' work in such cases is altogether without value. . . . Superintendents, particularly when they are not too numerous, may have a potent influence on a school system; but it is to the principal we must look to bring his school up to a high standard of efficiency. . . . I was never able to secure any permanent and all-pervading improvements in a school except through a strong principal.'

[*Note.*—No attempt has been made here to trace the principle of individuality beyond the near and more obvious environment of the schools in the form of the local organisation. That it extends throughout the whole educational life of America, however, is well known. Beginning with the policy of the national government, which is 'to aid education, but not in any wise to assume its control,' we find each State making its own school law, so far as securing the existence of a system of schools within its borders is concerned. But

the State in turn 'delegates to local authorities, variously called the school board, the school committee, &c., power to organise and carry on schools in their respective localities.'[1] The several States,' says Dr. Harris, 'repeat in the general form of their State constitutions the national constitution, and delegate to the subdivisions, counties, or townships, the management of education.'[2] Within the State the county, township, or district is the local unit for the support and control of schools, 'special laws excepted, under which cities, towns, and independent districts exist.'[3] It is by means of these special laws that the principle of locality becomes influential in education, a principle which lies at the foundation of the political liberties of Anglo-Saxon peoples. It is only when it lapses that the body politic loses vitality, and (as has been the case in England in the last fifty years, and, judging from an opinion about to be quoted, may come to be the case to some extent in America) has to yield to the spur of central initiative. 'The idea of local self-government is that each individual shall manage for himself such matters as concern him alone; that where two or more persons are concerned the smallest political subdivision shall have jurisdiction and legislative powers; where the well-being of several towns is concerned the county or the State may determine the action taken. But where the interests of more than one State are concerned, the nation has ultimate control.'[4]

The interplay of central initiative and local government is so important and delicate a problem that it may be well to quote an American statement of the

[1] B. A. Hinsdale, *The Business Side of City School Systems.*

[2] *Monograph on Elementary Education*, contributed to the United States Educational Exhibit, Paris, 1900, p. 21.

[3] *Ib.* pp. 29, 30.

[4] *Ib.* p. 19.

authority of the State in education. In the Paris Exhibition Monograph on 'Educational Organisation and Administration,' Dr. Draper, President of the University of Illinois, presents this aspect of the question with great clearness. Referring to the 'States and the Schools,' he says: 'Since the American school system has come to be supported wholly by taxation, it has come to depend on the exercise of a sovereign power. . . . The dependence upon State authority which has thus arisen has gone further than anything else towards the development of a *system*, and towards the equalisation of school privileges to the people of the same State.' As to the 'improvement by such intervention there can be no doubt. In many cases State school funds have been created, or large sums are raised by general levy each year, which are distributed so as to give the most aid to the sections which are poorest and most need it. In the State of New York, for example, the cities pay more than half a million of dollars every year to the support of the schools in the country districts. In practically all of the States excellent normal schools are maintained to prepare teachers for the elementary and secondary schools. In all of the southern and western States great State universities are sustained as parts of the State school systems. . . . The different States have gone to very different lengths in exercising their authority. . . . In most cases it has been determined by the location of the point of equipose between necessity and free consent. The State government has, of course, not been disposed to go farther than the people were willing, for all government is by the people. . . . In all of the States there is some sort of a State school organisation established by law. In practically all

there is an officer known as the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, or the State School Commissioner. In some there is a State Board of Education. In New York there is a State Board of Regents in charge of the private academies, in some measure of the public secondary schools, and of all of the higher institutions; and also a State Superintendent of Public Instruction, with very high authority over the elementary schools and in a large measure over the public high schools.' Dr. Draper adds his opinion 'that there can be no doubt about the general tendency being strongly towards greater centralisation.' The current of legislation and the decisions of the courts 'are practically in accord, and are to the effect that in each State the school system is not local but general.' Whether the influence of locality will wane before that of a more central control or not, Dr. Draper's words clearly deserve to be considered by the side of other statements which lay chief stress on local influence.

The fact remains that 'in most States special or general laws give cities the control of the details of their school administration.'[1] There are, moreover, ways in which, just as a right form of central initiative is in the long run friendly to local government, the State may facilitate the operations of localities in matters of education. If a special charter of educational liberty is desired, as has been the case of late years with Indianapolis and Cleveland, in obtaining a special form of school administration giving large powers to the city superintendent, or of Dayton, in obtaining an extension of the period for which the superintendent could be appointed (two years instead of one), the city

[1] *Monograph on Elementary Education*, contributed to the United States Educational Exhibit, Paris, 1900, Append. viii.

obtains such charter from the State. The State legislature becomes, indeed, a sort of court of appeal, facilitating reforms by carrying them out of the heat and dust of local controversy, and is a means whereby the will of the local majority obtains readier expression; at times, also, as in a recent case in New York State, the State exercises its centralised power, and compels a district to provide educational facilities. In theory, and by the constitution, the individual State has all power within its own borders, but it delegates its power to cities 'in proportion to their demand for it.' 'The State is amenable to local influences.'

As a general rule, therefore, the educational leader, whether he be superintendent or member of the Board of Education, can only move by moving the near public, and only so fast as he can keep that public near him. This implies a certain liability to abuse; it is a tremendous progressive force when a cluster of good men get together on a Board of Education, and give a good tone to local opinion; but men who are merely laying a foundation for their own political ambitions can sometimes make this large amount of local liberty their private opportunity. One effect of the large amount of control that has been given to cities in regard to education would perhaps scarcely have been anticipated, namely, that 'the city schools are much more homogeneous as respects both the organisation of business and the organisation of instruction than the country or village schools,' which are more directly under State authority.[1] In general it may be said that each city retains its own individuality, which the schools in a measure reflect; but at the same time this very freedom of initiative leads to a fairly identifiable uni-

[1] B. A. Hinsdale, *The Business Side of City School Systems.*

formity. When one city has a reputation for the best, others are eager to study its methods, and, if approved, to follow them. On the one hand, therefore, there is every freedom to experiment; on the other hand there is, what every visitor to American schools gratefully acknowledges, a perfect freemasonry amongst educators. The best is freely shown and freely copied. On the analogy of a familiar principle in hydrostatics, where there is no local obstruction the tendency is everywhere towards the highest level.

What the central government has done, and the State governments, in the way of delegating authority to locally elected representatives, the city Board of Education tends to do. This is shown above, but Professor Hinsdale's words give point to the statement there made. 'The board must be clothed by the law with legislative, executive, and judicial powers and duties. One of the first things that it should do, however, is immediately to divest itself of most of its executive and judicial duties, and to confine itself mainly to legislation. . . . Acting as a legislature, the board should establish three executive departments, defining their powers and duties:

'The Department of Finance, Accounts, and Records.

'The Department of Construction, Repairs, and Supplies.

'The Department of Instruction and Discipline.

'The heads of the departments might be called the Auditor, the Superintendent of Construction' [sometimes called 'director' or 'clerk to the board'], 'and the Superintendent of the Schools.']

CHAPTER III

INDIVIDUALITY AND METHODS OF CLASSIFICATION

'All are to be taught. And knowledge is infinite. And life is short. And average brains are weak. And few have time to spare. And time is short even to them. Teachers of Minnesota, what is to be done? How can this be dealt with? This is our problem.'

THE readiest way to approach the subject of individuality in class-management will be to consider in turn the three great departments of school thought and effort—classification, teaching, and discipline—and to speak of some American methods and suggestions under each heading.

The present chapter will be devoted to methods of classification. Here we encounter the old problem of arranging for classes, and many would add schools, of convenient size. The problem may be stated in the words of English educators. A seventeenth-century writer, 'the worthy Puritan,' who, Quick says, 'has done more to lay the foundation for the art of teaching than his famous contemporaries, Milton and Locke,' advocated a *Reformed School* of fifty or sixty pupils with a headmaster and three ushers. Each usher was to have charge of his own group of boys, acting as form-master in school and house-master and friend out of school. The individual behaviour and disposition of the boys were to be observed, and the ushers to confer with the

headmaster at the close of each day. In more recent times Thring has both uttered and acted upon the principle that 'to teach is to pay individual attention.' He kept down his numbers at Uppingham strictly, maintaining that, in spite of house-masters and all the helps of a skilful organisation, so soon as the numbers in a school exceeded 330 or 340, they begin to act as a drag. No master, Thring said, should have more boys under him than he could attend to individually. He had the customary English faith, which is perhaps at times in danger of being overstrained, in the backward, diffident boy; and urged that no education was *true* which did not educate every boy whom it professed to take in hand. As to the limits to the size of a school, 'as long as the headmaster knows every boy he is headmaster; the moment he does not, the man who does is so far headmaster.'

But, supposing we cannot so limit the size of the schools, and supposing we cannot, save by the slow growth of public opinion, limit the size of the classes, what is there that we may do to conserve the principle of individuality in collective or mass education? President Eliot, of Harvard, says that the teacher who stands before fifty-six pupils and attempts to give to them, one and all, value for time received, is attempting what no mortal can do. Many teachers accept the dilemma as inevitable, yet with an uneasy consciousness that all is not going well. It is but natural that in America, where such phrases as 'In a democratic country like this' fill the air, and supply a formula to everyday opinion and endeavour, some effort should have been made to solve the difficulty. For classes are not, on the whole, smaller in the public schools of America than they are in England—at any rate, not

in the cities that were visited in the eastern half of the States.[1]

Two main answers are offered in actual school practice to the question, How to reach the individual in a class of pupils varying from forty to seventy (and in some cases even more): (*a*) One of these is the division of the class or grade into sections according to proficiency, the separate sections being occupied in oral work and desk work alternately; (*b*) the other, often found in conjunction with this, is close grading and frequent promotion. The aim of these two methods is identical, namely, to remove from every pupil the feeling of being one of a large battalion which moves *en bloc* and almost automatically, and to create in its place a consciousness of scope and the assurance that the school is a place where earnest effort will meet with adequate recognition. A combination of sectional teaching with close grading offers the best and fullest solution from the standpoint of classification to the twofold question, How to reach and teach the individual child? and How to take note of his progress and promote him accordingly?

(*a*) *Sectional Teaching in the Individual Grades.*

The practice of sectional teaching in the individual grades, which was first observed in Washington, is accepted as an established principle of school management in nearly all the places which the writer visited. And, notwithstanding one or two points of difficulty which it at once suggests, it throws real light upon the problem. The first or lowest

[1] The principal cities visited by the writer were Washington, New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Worcester, Cleveland, Detroit, Chicago, Minneapolis, Indianapolis, Cincinnati.

grade is as often as not divided into three sections under the one teacher, the ordinary sections of more advanced and less advanced pupils, as found in higher grades, and a small section of beginners or very backward children; the other primary grades,[1] and for some subjects some of the grammar grades, are divided into two sections, generally a more advanced and a less advanced.

The sections taking oral work alternately means that the teacher is giving oral lessons (or 'recitations') throughout almost the whole of the school day. The children, however, have constant change, for during the intervals of 'reciting' with the teacher they are occupied at their desks in preparing lessons from their books, in writing exercises or compositions, working examples, or following out in some way the principle of the Froebelian occupations.

This method of dividing up the classes was spoken of as quite an old custom.[2] The principal of a Peoria school spoke of its having been practised in large classes at least thirty or forty years ago, and referred to the advantage it possesses in rendering home-work unnecessary in the lower grades. But it has been a growing custom, especially of late years; Brookline (Mass.) only adopted it two years ago, and finds it to

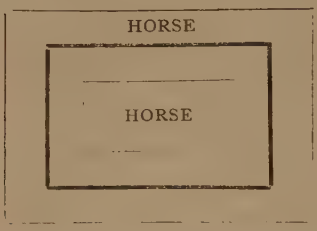
[1] It should be stated that the public elementary schools have, as a rule, an eight-year course (eight 'grades'). The classes of the first four years are usually called the primary grades (ages 6 to 10); those of the later four years the grammar grades (ages 10 to 14). From the eighth grammar grade children pass on to the high schools.

[2] Under the conservative code of Würtemberg, which dates in its earliest form from the year 1559, the plan of studies for 1870 so arranged the work that whilst some sections were being taught orally, the others were engaged in work which did not require the master's attention. The lowest class did more desk work than oral work, in the proportion of $10\frac{1}{2}$ hours to $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours; whilst the highest class had more direct teaching, in the proportion of $16\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$. (Buisson, *Dictionnaire de Pédagogie*, art. 'Wurtemberg.') Lancaster practised something of the same kind.

work very well ; and at Cincinnati, a city which, in spite of some excellent features, has in this and other matters dropped behind somewhat, the newly appointed superintendent proposes to adopt it forthwith. The first grade teacher in one of the Worcester schools has as many as *four* sections of about fifteen children in each. Speaking of her work, the principal said that although he had observed it for years, he could not yet quite understand how it was done.[1] An admirable spirit pervaded this class-room. Part of the secret is the teacher's ingenuity in devising interesting, and at the same time educative, forms of 'busy-work' for the children at the desks. For example, reading became an objective lesson, capable of being followed by the child without the teacher's guidance, by a device reminding one somewhat of the use of the *Orbis Pictus* of Comenius in the vernacular school ; a frame was provided with spaces for pictures and the names of the objects represented, and the children wrote : 'I see a top, book, cup, paper, &c.,' writing the word and associating it with the picture of the object. Another plan was to have envelopes containing words which had to be

[1] What is here explained will answer the very practical question which must have suggested itself to visitors to the American Educational Exhibit (Paris, 1900 ; Manchester, 1901) :—Does not the elaborate brush and pencil work adorning compositions, and even examples in arithmetic—an instance of the excessive use of a good thing—take up a large amount of valuable school time ? It would if it took up the teacher's time, or left it unoccupied with more valuable forms of energy ; but this is not the case. Roughly speaking, half of the school-time of the scholar is taken up at the desk in work related to his oral or class work, and of the nature of practical exercises upon it. This 'seat work' or 'desk work' or 'busy work,' as it is variously called, is what was shown in the cases. The exhibit might in this sense be said to have shown what the children themselves do without the teacher's direct guidance, as a result of work done previously with the teacher, and also, in part, as a result of the child's own intent pursuit of his task.

matched with printed names also corresponding to pictures. In the illustration the outer square surrounds the picture, and contains the name 'horse'; the inner



square has been taken from the envelope, matched to the word above, and the name associated with the picture which it hides.

Simple arithmetical examples were set on papers cut out to resemble a game, the children being able to check their own answers. However it was managed, one thing was manifest, namely, that it was accomplished without strain or excitement. The teacher devoted several minutes to showing some of the work done by the class, throughout which time the children remained happily and intently occupied. This, as will be seen later, is claimed as one of the great advantages of the method, the power of concentration and self-direction which it develops. For an oral lesson in arithmetic the children stood out before the blackboard and worked examples which would enable them to make ready use of the written questions, such as—

+	−	÷	+	+
5	10	4	2	5
5	10	2	2	3
			2	

As an instance of the happy freedom pervading the room, one boy, a beginner, proudly showed us some

scribble as his desk-work; another boy, by his side, excused him by saying, 'He has only been here a little while.' Another example was that of a boy desiring to leave the class-room, who quietly wrote his name upon the wall-slate by the door as he went out without interrupting the teacher or the work. This is quite common. Children requiring to go out of the room, or to get anything for use from another pupil or another part of the room, do so with a perfectly understood freedom, a freedom which is in no way abused. These details are noteworthy, as the success of such a class-arrangement as that described depends quite as much upon method in discipline as upon ingenuity in teaching. The Worcester superintendent's opinion, in one of whose schools this striking instance of sectional teaching was met with, was unequivocal: 'Every class must have two sections, and as many more as are necessary, in order that every child may have time to study as well as to recite.'[1]

Amongst the cities where the practice of sectional teaching was observed and spoken of favourably were Washington, Philadelphia, Boston, Cleveland, Indianapolis, and Minneapolis. The reason assigned by the supervisor of primary grades at Washington was that by its means individual instruction is approached as nearly as possible; at any rate, more nearly than is possible when a teacher takes a whole class at once. By grouping together minds of more or less equal ability, each section, and each individual of each section, whether the higher or lower, is better catered for. Whereas, if the teacher attempts to teach the whole class, 'the bright ones get everything, and the slower

[1] There are no home lessons in the graded [i.e. the elementary] schools of this city.

minds, who need most, are in danger of getting little or nothing.' With the exception of one opinion, to be quoted later, Washington was the only city where any hint was heard of the sectional teaching being found and spoken of as burdensome to the teachers, who, of course, are engaged in oral work almost the whole day. Every one admitted that the plan was adopted primarily in the children's interest, but that at the same time the teachers themselves are, as a rule, better satisfied, as they feel they have done more satisfactory work with the children. There is no need to repeat the *same* lesson with the two sections ; in nature-study, for example, the form and habits of different birds may be studied with different children, and so the teacher's interest is maintained ; and, moreover, one section does not overhear the other reciting its own lesson. The principal of an excellent school at Roxburgh, near Philadelphia, gave similar reasons for the practice, saying that the individual has to be studied on the intellectual as well as on the moral side, and that teachers can never do what they ought to do so long as they have large classes. In the lowest grades this lady thought there was no loss of time ; in number-work, for example, the child has to assimilate the concrete before he can see in the abstract, and this concrete work he does at the desk. The 'busy-work' contains the two elements, physical and intellectual. In this desk-work help can be given in the brief intervals between recitations to those who most need it ; and in the recitation the teacher can pay more regard to individual needs with the smaller number to handle. If, for example, there is a child whose judging or thinking power requires special training, the teacher of twenty or thirty can select questions which such a child may work

out, in a way that she[1] would probably shrink from doing with a class of fifty or sixty. Referring to the wish of President Eliot, of Harvard University, for the time to come when there should be five pupils to each teacher, the Roxburgh principal said, 'I like classes of thirty; with five one would lose the social side.'

In Boston the lower classes are divided (the first grade commonly into three groups). The principal of the Bowdoin School, with whom the matter was talked over, held the opinion that all grades ought to be divided into two groups. The superintendent of schools at Cleveland claims that by the adoption of sectional teaching health and energy are saved, inasmuch as the smaller number can be taught with less strain. Miss Brooks, the supervisor of primary grades in St. Paul, and the acting principal of the training school, whose judgment has great weight with American educators, believes that where you have the customary three divisions in the first grade, and where the sectional teaching is adopted more or less throughout the grades, there is a real economy of individual opportunity and development, but there is no real economy of work. It is a means whereby the teacher can 'appeal to the one little soul in the large number; otherwise only the fringe consisting of the more intelligent ones will get the benefit, excepting with very wise and skilful teachers.' But Miss Brooks was equally decided in her view that

[1] One has to say 'she' when speaking of the American teacher, owing to the great preponderance of women-teachers in the graded schools, especially in the cities, where the proportion is 93 per cent. To quote an extreme instance, in the fifty-nine graded schools of Cleveland, a city noted for the excellence of its education and for the ability of its superintendent, there was not a single male principal or teacher. A change is desired in this respect in many quarters, and at Philadelphia a rule has recently been passed by the Board of Education that all future appointments to the principalship of mixed schools shall be of men.

there was no saving of the teacher's energy in using the sectional method.

It does not necessarily happen that the children in one class-room belong to the same grade. Where the children are grouped, as is generally the case, according to ability, it makes but little difference whether a teacher has the two sections 2A and 2B, or 3B and 2A. Note was taken of a class in Indianapolis which contained sections from the third and fourth grades respectively. The teacher said that the work was somewhat more difficult, but more interesting, her opinion being that large classes have to be divided in any case, because there are not so many children of equal ability. In Indianapolis the more and the less advanced sections are selected on a basis of reading in the lower grades, and of arithmetic in the upper. Judging from the reading in this class of third and fourth grade children, ages eight to nine, the method yields good results, as the children read decidedly well. In some schools the grades are divided into sections for some subjects and not for others. Such lessons as physiology and history are sometimes taken by the whole class. At the Forestville school, Chicago, the only subject for which the grades are divided into sections is arithmetic.

An actual time-table in use in one of the class-rooms of the Douglas School, Minneapolis, will show the arrangement of the teacher's time under a system of sectional teaching. The class consisted of the two sections, 4A and 5B. (It should be stated that a little home work is commenced with the children of the fifth grade, such as reading in advance of the geography lesson.)

Morning.

9–9.05. Opening.[1]
9.05–9.20. General lesson.[1]
9.20–9.40. Arithmetic, B Class.
9.40–10. Geography, A Class.
10–10.05. Physical exercise.
10.05–10.25. Arithmetic, A Class.
10.25–10.45. Recess.
10.45–11. Geography, B Class.
11–11.20. Reading, A Class.
11.20–11.35. Spelling, B Class.
11.35–11.50. Spelling, A Class.
11.50–12. Rapid work, B Class.

Afternoon.

1.30–1.45. Language, A Class.
1.45–2. Language, B Class.
2–2.10. Rapid work, A Class.
2.10–2.30. Music.
2.30–2.45. Recess.
2.45–3.10. Drawing, writing.
3.10–3.30. Reading, B Class.

When the experiment of sectional teaching is first tried, difficulty is sometimes experienced in getting the children to work by themselves at the desk, but both they and the teachers become quite accustomed to it in time. Indeed, the practice is in accord with one of the most marked movements in American education at the present time, the attempt to interest the children in personal study instead of trusting to the teachers all the time to work with them. In place of the older practice of teaching the whole class together, the sectional teaching has been introduced largely with this end in view. A superintendent, according to Mr. L. H. Jones, who holds that office at Cleveland, does not need to

[1] On the Monday morning of the writer's visit the 'opening' consisted of mutual greetings: 'Good morning, children;' 'Good morning, Miss ——;' a patriotic song; and the pledge of allegiance—'I pledge allegiance to my flag, and the republic for which it stands; one nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all.' The 'general lesson' was in nature study, the children describing birds they had seen since the previous Friday, telling of their observed habits, and endeavouring to name them.

issue orders about it, but the matter is discussed at various meetings of the teachers, and most of the teachers come to adopt it.

It need scarcely be said, perhaps, that there is not a perfectly unanimous voice in favour of the expedient we are describing. There seems to be some danger, at any rate, in the absence of close grading and frequent promotions, of the children in the backward section feeling that they are the dull ones, and losing heart and incentive accordingly. Children are sometimes heard to say out of school that they belong to the weak section, and cannot get on. This is the kind of thing which is especially likely to happen when the teacher is herself out of sympathy with the plan. Occasionally it may happen that an exceptionally able teacher can handle the larger number, 'separating the children,' as one said, 'largely in her own mind,' and avoiding the danger of 'having a class of dummies all dumb together.'[1] Certainly, everything should be done to make the children unconscious of natural defects; but in answer to those who object to the plan of sectional teaching on this ground, it might justly be asked whether leaving the duller children to the chances of a large class where they have to compete week after week with the brightest is not more likely to fail in this respect. The real theory of the two divisions seems rather to be, as stated, amongst others, by the superintendent of coloured schools at Washington, that each school is composed as a rule of children of two general types, those who are capable of doing the work largely by themselves, and

[1] It will be seen later how a system of easy stages and frequent promotion removes this latter possibility by creating a continuous stream of bright children, which, passing upwards through all grades and sections, makes stagnant pools impossible.

those more or less incapable of self-direction and needing more of the teacher's guidance. The former division is, generally speaking, the larger of the two, and a really good teacher makes it a test of success and an object of ambition to promote as many of the backward section within the year as she possibly can. In other words, promotion is made easy, and children not capable of brilliant feats may yet by steady industry pass from section B to section A without difficulty. 'There is a disposition on the part of the pupils themselves,' said the superintendent just quoted, 'to become members of the upper division. It is a frequent thing for a child to come up and say that he is going to try to get into the upper division. This gives an opportunity for co-operation between teacher and scholar, and helps to foster a go-ahead and get-ahead spirit amongst the pupils.' When help goes hand in hand with incentive, and the weaker section has the preference, for example, as to seats—by sitting nearer to the side of the room having the blackboard, the windows being opposite [1]—and the larger share of the teacher's time and strength, it will at once be seen that backward children are likely to be the gainers. There is also the further advantage that the teacher is able to go rather more slowly with the backward children, and so to accommodate the work to their powers of acquisition. In this way, whilst the brighter children are trained to trust their own powers and to feel themselves in a measure responsible for their own progress, the dullest do not fail to get a real chance of education. 'A school,' says Bishop Spalding,

[1] This meets the double difficulty of defective sight, to which slowness is sometimes due, and of the diminished ability to copy from a board in those who are weak mentally.

of Peoria, 'is more safely judged by those it fails to improve than by those it helps.' [1]

The greatest gain, however, from sectional teaching is one which belongs equally to the two divisions of the class. It is upon this point that Dr. Harris lays special stress; and any one who has noticed the pertness which continuous oral teaching tends to develop in children will appreciate the force of the argument. There are two kinds of attention which the school should cultivate; responsive, direct, or alert attention, which is the attention demanded by the oral lesson; and concentrative, self-directive, or absorptive attention, which is cultivated by the use of a book or by following an occupation at the desk. This is saying in practical form what psychologists say in theory, that there are two sides to every

[1] *Opportunity: and other Essays and Addresses*, p. 124. Mr. Sanford, Principal of the Brookline High School, has prepared a report on Grading in England, Germany, and the United States for the Special Reports issued by the English Board of Education (vol. ix.). With regard to his own school, he says in the Report of the Brookline School Committee for 1900, that he has adopted smaller subdivisions for recitation purposes, and the plan of giving more recitations to the weaker pupils. 'There has been a pronounced gain during the past half-year in this adaptation of methods and degree of attention to the specific needs of particular scholars. In other words, the school is at present giving more individual attention to its pupils than ever before. All the teachers have afternoon consultation hours, which are devoted to giving assistance to their scholars, hearing omitted recitations, or to conferences with parents. There is, therefore, no reason whatever why any boy or girl of fair health and average ability should fall behind, or any excuse for the failure of parents, through ignorance of what is required, to co-operate with the teachers.

'Finally, it is scarcely necessary to add that the outcome of such effort, if successful, is in the highest degree ethical. Make a boy sure of himself, inspire him with confidence in his own ability, and he becomes not merely a self-reliant but an honest worker. Far better than preaching or abstract moral instruction is the potent influence of a well-organised school regimen. This, then, is the supreme end for which the teachers are working: greater honesty in rendering excuses, in the preparation of lessons, in fact, in meeting all obligations.'

act of attention—attending *to*, and attending *from*; in one sense attention focuses, in another it excludes. This is the effect which most deeply impresses an observer. Without a word from the teacher as to *what* they shall do, a whole grade will quietly set itself to work. One may enter a school at the opening of the school, or at the change of lessons, and it is enough for the teacher merely to tell the children to go forward with work they have in hand. There is something businesslike about the ordinary American class-room; one feels that the school work is understood to be not merely the teacher's business, but the learner's. The greatest individual and moral advantage of training children to undertake and carry through tasks for themselves in the intervals of oral lessons is the cultivation of this power of direct interest and concentrated attention. Moreover, an all-important part in education is to give command of the *book*. There is loss in handing over to ear and tongue a monopoly in the art of learning. One may get readiness of speech and superficial brightness, but one cannot have depth. For judgment, reflection, and *mastery*, the boy needs to work by himself, face his own difficulties, and overcome them, and part of the art of classification is to place each boy in the presence of tasks of this nature, which stimulate whilst they do not overwhelm. These two aspects of education Dr. Harris speaks of as ear-mindedness and eye-mindedness. Both need to be cultivated. The individual self-directive work at the desk is not to replace the recitation. Collective oral lessons have their place side by side with this individual work. The latter trains in 'eye-mindedness' and concentration, the former in 'ear-mindedness,' or alert attention. Eye and ear each play their part. Might one not say that, whilst

the eye is pre-eminently the organ of individuality, the ear is the social organ, and, therefore, takes the lead in character-building? The mastery of the printed page has been selected as a typical instance of the cultivation of 'eye-mindedness' and absorptive attention, but of course there are other powers that are cultivated in the 'busy work' than those which concern the book and the assimilation of its contents. The carrying upward of the spirit of the Froebelian occupations gives play to the constructive imagination, which is also an all-important individualising agent.

[*Note.*—It might, perhaps, be urged that objective methods of oral teaching in the lower classes, 'object' lessons and the like, are an appeal to the eye-mindedness of the learner as well as to his ear-mindedness. But there is all the difference between looking *at* and looking *into*; the one is very often an act of perception, or at most of passive imagination, following the lead of the teacher's thought; the other involves reflection and judgment, uses the higher assimilative powers of the mind, and brings active or constructive imagination into play.]

As one would naturally expect, the method just described has suggested others. Some teachers adopt a more complex classification, retaining the sections, but re-classifying the children as A or B for different subjects. If carried far this is altogether too cumbersome, as it involves a considerable amount of changing places in the same class-room. The following is an account of a three-section system, taken from the 'Educational Review' for March 1900 (Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, Editor).

It is based on the results of a year's trial of a flexible promotion system in Santa Barbara, California. Soon after the

beginning of the year 1898–99 the children in the different grades were divided into three groups, so that each grade had A, B, and C sections. The sections did the work of the grade concentrically. The B section covered the ground of the C section, but worked more intensively; the A section made still more ramifications in a subject than the B section. For example, if the study were map geography, the C section, composed of the least advanced children, would be given a limited amount of work—the most important cities, rivers, &c.; the B section, not requiring so much drill, would take up the same field, but in greater detail, and the A section in still greater detail. In arithmetic the C section would work on a subject in its more simple relationships, or perhaps attack it in objective form. The B class would take up the same subject in greater complexity and more abstractly, possibly. The A class would deal with it in a still more advanced manner.

When a group in an A section was ready for the next grade it was transferred to the C section of that grade, this occurring perhaps three times a year; the other groups, if ready, slipping up in the same grade from the C to the B section, and from the B to the A section under the same teacher, and doing the further work of the grade in a more intensive manner. Beside the group promotions from section to section, the concentric system admitted of individual promotions at any mature time. The child, judged at the teacher's discretion to be capable of faster work, was immediately transferred to the next higher section, where he found, not a bewildering field of entirely new ground, but one of which he already knew the compass points and the main highways. With this basis he could easily with industry enter upon the more detailed work of that section, which his slower companions, not yet mature enough for the advanced work, could not do. He would not in this way 'skip' a section, but would merely be placed in a class where he could attack the same subject in a more comprehensive way.

Such a flexible promotion system approaches the individualistic ideal, perhaps as nearly as school mechanism, dealing

with mass, will permit. Besides allowing more frequent classification of the children in general, and so recognising varying conditions, it permits the individual child, if bright, to advance a section at any time without any strain to himself or break in his work, and if somewhat dull, or conditioned by unfavourable circumstances, or absent any length of time, to fall back a section at a time, without too great discouragement.

In other words, this system of promotion retains, on the one hand, the class idea in modified form, which perhaps neither democracy would, nor finance could, give up at present, and, on the other hand, it so nearly approaches the individualistic idea as to allow the teacher to break its bounds at any time according to her own judgment.

Records were kept by the teachers of the individual progress of all the children in the Santa Barbara schools. An examination of these may throw some light on our ideas of the 'normal' in its relation to the 'majority.' Children who entered late or left school during the year are not considered in the data presented, which deal with the remaining 835 pupils, distributed among four schools. The normal children were supposed to make three sections a year; that is, to do the prescribed year's work with healthy ease. The slow children made sometimes no sections, sometimes only one section, or perhaps two. The fast children made anywhere from four to eight sections, thus accomplishing in a year the normal work of a year and a third, a year and two-thirds, up to two and two-thirds years. The following table shows the distribution of the children according to the number of sections accomplished.

No. of sections	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
No. of children	28	58	195	369	74	75	30	1	5

It will be seen that a plurality of the children come under the heading 'three sections,' but not a majority. The 369 so-called normal children are outbalanced by the 466 slow and fast children.

. . . . In fact the normal child should not be the primary

consideration of any system of promotion. The non-normal child who belongs to the majority, or at least to a large proportion, is crying for recognition. He must be given the opportunity to travel his own pace. Even the normal child of one year is not necessarily the normal child of another year. The conditions which produce retardation or advancement are several, and these may vary.

. . . . In conclusion : Even if we knew enough to form an ideal normal curriculum for the normal child, justice would not be accomplished by this alone for the majority, or at least for a large proportion, of children. There are so many and such varying conditions in the make-up of individual children that those differing from the normal will often be more in evidence than those approaching the normal. In the meantime, while scientific child-study and neurology are studying general child-tendencies to which the curriculum must be adapted, the practical solution of the problem is to allow each child the right to traverse the present curriculum at a pace which is normal to himself.

A peculiar but interesting method has been hit upon by the superintendent of schools at Batavia, a thriving little town of 10,000 inhabitants in the north-west corner of New York State. It is called by its author the 'individual instruction system,' but it really consists of alternate oral and desk work with one or two important additions, the most important being the presence of a second teacher, who takes charge of the individual instruction, whilst her fellow teacher is giving the oral work. The origin of the practice is due to a twofold circumstance, large class-rooms (a fortunate accident) and large classes (the result of the city's growth). The device is extending to other cities with schools similarly circumstanced ; it prevails in Attica, N.Y., and has been adopted in single schools at Rochester and Syracuse, and superintendents of other cities are con-

templating its introduction. The plan of working is as follows: The two teachers are co-ordinate in rank, though the oral teacher has nominal charge of the room. The individual instruction teacher sits at a desk in front of, or, preferably and more generally, behind, the scholars, who are working at their seats, and helps them with their difficulties. There is no interference with those who are capable of going ahead without help, but a constant stream of those requiring assistance keeps the individual instructor busy. It is, therefore, a method of bringing out the slow children, and giving them a grounding of which they may in the long run make more valuable use than their superficially smarter classmates. Its author claims for the plan that it eliminates the backward pupils altogether. 'The lines have about lost their *echelon* by a vigorous left-front-into-line.' He compares the system to a medicine which is made up of two poisons; mass-work uncorrected is a process which crowds out not a few in sheer discouragement or indifference; individual work alone would lack many of the best elements of teaching. On the day preceding the writer's visit the superintendent had asked an eighth-grade teacher, 'How many of the class are lagging behind?' and obtained the answer, 'Not one.' And in answer to the further question, in view of the forthcoming State Regents' examination for passing children on to the high school, 'How many are you in doubt of?' the same answer was given. Allowing for all rose-coloured judgments arising from the enthusiasm of discovery, the writer could not but think that the experiment contains within it a suggestion, of which more general use might be made, as, for example, in the kind of help pupil teachers might render in a school with large classes, in which the rooms are large enough

to allow of two sections sitting more or less apart. The rooms at Batavia are 30 feet by 50 feet, and 14 to 15 feet high; and, to complete the picture by referring to an item which is characteristic of American class-rooms, they are surrounded by 90 feet of black-board [wall-slate]. The removal of worry about their lessons is said to have improved the general health of the pupils, greatly increased the attendance, and to have won the parents' approval, who are less troubled at home with their children's difficulties. The medical inspector has said that there is less neurasthenia at Batavia than in any other place that he visits. And this has been effected by a plan, which, owing to the liberal scale on which the schoolrooms were built twenty-five years ago, has utilised existing space and postponed for a time the necessity for new buildings. 'A teacher who would have been overtaxed with a class exceeding fifty, now has a far lighter task with the oral work only of a class of seventy.' The superintendent would not shrink from arranging classes of eighty on the two-teacher plan. A drawback to the method is that a really good teacher is sure to find the constant individual work irksome. This is known to be the case in some instances; and one could not but think, as the teachers are equal in rank and presumably equally conversant with the individual pupils' progress, that some fitting period might be agreed upon so that they might take the individual and the oral work alternately.

[Further exemplifications of this method are contained in brief statements in Appendix B. In Toronto the legal time for closing school is four o'clock; those, however, who are well ahead with their work leave at 3.30, and the remaining half-hour is given to individual work with the backward pupils.]

(*b*) *Close Grading.*

Close grading is the second of the widely accepted methods adopted for the purpose of furthering individual attainment in the collective life of the school. The separation of the recognised stages of advancement or grades into yearly periods is gradually yielding to a tendency to bring the grades nearer together. The loss of a year for possibly no more than six weeks' backwardness is increasingly regarded as unjust and extremely discouraging. The children are not made for the grades but the grades for the children, say they. Put a boy back for a fifth year to a fourth grade and the chances are that if he can anyhow help it he will not come back to school. The existence of sections in the single room has obviated the difficulty somewhat, as the sections are of the nature of sub-grades, but, of course, the theory is that a year's work in either section prepares for promotion to the grade above. Some boys will take the medicine of going back into their old grade and turn out well, but undisciplined boys with no good home influence behind them cannot so easily be got to do it; and mothers have been known to feign excuses to account for their children's absence under such conditions. In Peoria (Ill.) the effort is made to have the divisions of the school only twelve weeks apart, each division being at the same time divided into sections. In large schools it is quite possible to have such grades within grades; there may, for instance, be 5A, 5B, 5C, all divisions of the fifth grade and under separate teachers. Superintendent H. E. Kratz, of Sioux City, states in his report for 1898 that, in answer to an inquiry sent to each of the

fifty largest schools of Iowa, he learned that forty-four out of the fifty had an interval between classes of half a year or less. And more than twenty-five years ago Dr. Harris, when superintendent of the St. Louis schools, introduced a ten weeks, or one-fourth year, interval. New York has recently adopted what is practically a fourteen-grade system, though retaining the old nomenclature 1A, 1B, 2A, 2B, &c.; the work which used to occupy eight years with the yearly intervals between classes is done in seven: but it is by no means certain that the experiment has as yet assumed its final form. Indianapolis has a plan for half-yearly promotion, and a very important advisory report, presented to the Mayor of Chicago by an educational commission which he instituted, contains the recommendation that the course of study in that city be so re-adjusted as readily to permit of at least semi-annual promotions from grade to grade. On the whole, in spite of an open avowal in some quarters of a kind of 'concentric circles' theory to the effect that each new stage must begin with a repetition of all that has gone before, and of the more serious fact that in some cases teachers have to hold their pupils back lest they should trench upon work allotted to a higher grade, there is a general sentiment against repeating work already done. The cases quoted are merely illustrations of this general feeling.

One of the most earnest advocates of close grading is Mr. W. J. Shearer, superintendent of schools in Elizabeth, New Jersey. His suggestions are related in rather an interesting way to his experience of rural schools. He says, in a book on 'The Grading of Schools,' published in 1898: 'When years ago I left the work in the rural schools and accepted a position in a system of graded schools, I was greatly impressed

with the fact that, because of the usual plan of grading, there was serious injury done to many pupils. In the rural school pupils possessing the ability and determination were free to move forward, without dragging others with them, and without being held back by those who either did not have the ability to move more rapidly over the work or who lacked application. No such freedom existed in the graded school, where all were expected to move at the same rate for their whole school lives.' Mr. Shearer set out to find ways and means of breaking up this Procrustean bed. Instead of promoting yearly upon a basis of 'the supposed ability of the mythical average pupil,' he proposed a great number of distinct grades in each school. There is an element of exaggeration and over-statement in his pleading, as when he speaks of the 'bright pupils ruined.' It is possible to be too squeamish about not grading bright and dull pupils together (which is a different thing from associating more and less advanced), if for no other reason than that bright and dull minds are not set apart from each other in actual life, and that a too eager catering for the bright boy by constantly striving to keep him with his kind may tend to create in him an impatient and intolerant attitude in after life towards slower but better men than himself.

Finding that the year interval has not many champions, Mr. Shearer in the book referred to criticises the half-year interval as only a partial remedy, as it may involve from four to five months' revision when the pupil is only a few weeks behind. His plan, therefore, is to increase the number of sections and to make promotions whenever the children are ready. He quotes Dr. Harris as saying that 'thirty classes between the

first and eighth year are possible in large schools in cities. That all cities do not avail themselves of this possibility is one of the most serious defects in American school supervision.' New divisions, this writer urges, should be made by the teacher whenever they are necessary properly to accommodate the pupils in his room, and need not be continued after they cease to be helpful. 'As the divisions are quite small, better results can be obtained with shorter recitations, and time may be saved for individual work at those points where the study of the pupil's record shows that individual work is most needed.' He is able to quote from his own experience as follows: 'While the apparent increase in the number of recitations led teachers to look with disfavour on the plan before they understood it, at the end of the first year's experience with it they not only favoured it, but 94 per cent. of them gave in writing their reasons for preferring it to any other plan of which they had any knowledge.' As to the distance between the grades, four, six, or even ten weeks' work is considered 'small enough for all practical purposes,' and the whole plea is based on the truth of the assertion that 'fifty children can no more be held together in mental development than in physical growth.' Mr. Shearer says in one place: 'It is the general conviction of educators that it is best for pupils to remain several months under the same teacher, if by so doing they are not compelled to work with those of different attainments and ability.' The condition here laid down has been discussed already; the former part of the sentence suggests what is probably the most damaging criticism of rapid promotion, that the children are constantly strangers to their teachers. At this point the author adopts a definition of promotion which is not peculiar

to himself certainly,[1] but which is extremely valuable. The term 'promotion' may be 'used to indicate the passage from any school work to more advanced work. This meaning of the term seems to be the better one; for a change from one room to a higher is no greater advancement than the passing from one division of a subject to the next higher part. . . . The importance of permitting pupils to go forward when ready . . . cannot be represented too often nor too forcibly.'

Method of Individual Promotion.

The proposals just considered are closely related to the method of individual promotion, into which close grading almost of necessity resolves itself. The way in which the two things interlock is well shown in an extract from a Chicago superintendent's report, dating as far back as the year 1875, and quoted before the Chicago Educational Commission, previously mentioned: 'Within the limits of a course of study requiring eight years for its completion by the average pupil' [there surely is such an average, Mr. Shearer notwithstanding], 'we have twenty-eight classes, varying in distance from one month or two months in the very lowest grade to three months or five months in the highest grades. Pupils failing in promotion when examined with the highest class in a grade fall back in their course but a little time, since the class into which they drop is but a short time in the rear. . . . The discouragement to those who fail is far less when the hope of another trial is not long deferred. . . . The steps from class to class

[1] See the *Report of the Committee on Rural Schools*, Chicago, 1897, p. 113. 'It is evident that the word "grade" has two meanings—a grade of work and a grade of pupils.'

are so easily taken that many pupils are encouraged to try for more rapid advancement than they would think of attempting if the work of six months or a year must be anticipated. . . . Such flexibility as prevails in our system and the system of St. Louis certainly reduces to a minimum the danger of injury to individual pupils.' So far, close grading and its obvious advantages. The way in which it tends to individual promotion is shown in a sentence taken from the same extract: 'Many individual instances may be cited of pupils who have completed three grades in the time allotted to one—without injury to themselves and with profit to the classes through which they have passed.' The Chicago commissioners regard this plan with favour, as having been 'formerly followed in Chicago to a much greater extent and with conspicuous success,' and speak of it as strongly urged by leading educational authorities. They approve of considerable latitude being allowed to principals and teachers in the matter of individual promotion, which is at present practised in Chicago, and couple with this approval the suggestion of at least semi-annual promotion, believing that a shortened interval between the grades and the freest promotion of pupils by the principals are perfectly compatible.[1]

The principal of a Worcester school said that he had had exceptional children whom he had promoted four times in a single year, whereas others might take four years to pass through two grades. Indeed, the tendency seems to be more and more to abandon class promotion in favour of individual promotion; and the decision in

[1] The testimony of the Worcester superintendent is equally emphatic as to the compatibility of sectional grading and individual promotion: 'Our system of promotion and advancement is on the individual plan. I should have no scruples against promoting a child at any time.' See p. 41.

individual cases is left more and more to teachers and principals under the authorisation of the superintendent. A remark of the Washington superintendent that in a train ride of fifty miles one might pass through the whole of the history of education is illustrated in this matter, however, for the custom of different cities ranges almost anywhere between the two extremes. At Indianapolis one was told of 200 irregular promotions last year. In the report of Sioux City, already quoted, the superintendent says, 'Our special promotions amounted in the first six months of the present school year to 196 pupils.' From one part of Massachusetts one hears of 'skipping-classes.' A teacher reports that she has five children capable of doing two years' work in one; another teacher has, perhaps, seven; and a special class is arranged where the more rapid course is taken. My informant's criticism of this practice was that it means an educational loss in one respect, as the bright children can do more to stimulate a class than the teacher herself; the class expects the teacher to be able to do good work, but it is different when done by one of their own number. A good teacher can obtain great results by the skilful handling of bright pupils, and at the same time prevent these pupils from being anything but gainers. Might one not, indeed, venture to say, by way of offset to a *too eager* advocacy of the policy of rapid promotion, that the well-known principle of virtual velocities is not altogether out of court, and that sometimes what is gained in power is lost in speed, and conversely? There is every temptation to the American child to be in a hurry; and it cannot be regarded as a trait which calls for immediate development in American character.

As to tests for promotion, two examples may suffice.

In New York the teachers have memorandum books, and after each recitation a note is made concerning each scholar, and on the strength of this record of the children's progress promotions are made by the principal at the end of the term. If a parent complains because a child has not been promoted, the principal has the term's record to show. Moreover, weekly reports are sent to the parents of each individual child; the child who has done satisfactory work receiving a merit-card, and winning these week by week a child knows that his promotion is assured.[1] Nowhere was better work observed than in Minneapolis, the most westerly city that was visited. In the 1899 Report of the Board of Education the system of promotion is described in detail in the Rules for the Government of Public Schools:

Pupils shall be promoted and classified on their proficiency in the several branches of the course, as shown by the teacher's estimate of their daily work. It shall be the duty of the teachers in all grades above the second to make out and give to the principal, monthly, a careful estimate of each pupil's work in all the branches of study for the month, and the principal is to average these recorded estimates in February and June. These estimates are to be made on the scale of 1 to 10, the number 5 and below denoting *Very Poor* work, 6 *Poor*, 7 *Fair*, 8 *Good*, 9 *High*, and 10 *Excellent*.

Principals shall from time to time subject the pupils to such written and oral tests as will indicate their progress and be helpful to both teachers and pupils, and shall keep copies of such tests, with the date when given. The tests in the first two grades shall be oral, but in the third grade there may be written exercises, at the discretion of the principal.

Promotions in the first and second grades shall be determined by the teacher's estimates, as revised by the principal.

[1] The regulations with regard to promotion in the Brooklyn schools are added in an appendix. See Appendix A.

At the close of each term the pupils in all grades above the second, whose standing in all branches is 8 or above, shall be promoted into the next higher class. If in any three branches the pupil falls below 8, and in two of the three falls below 7, he may be promoted conditionally, provided that his habitual diligence in study or correctness of deportment, taken in connection with his proficiency in other branches, indicate that he can successfully do the work of the next higher class. If in three studies he falls below 7 he shall not be promoted. When a pupil is promoted conditionally, the work of the first month in the higher class shall determine his fitness to continue.

The written exercises of each pupil shall be preserved, with the dates and necessary comment. In case of complaint in regard to the non-promotion of any pupil, the superintendent may investigate the case, and his decision is to be final. In case of the non-promotion or the conditional promotion of a pupil, it shall be the duty of the principal to immediately notify the parents of the fact, and request such assistance as will secure more satisfactory results in the pupil's work. In case of the conditional promotion of a pupil, the principal shall also notify the parent of the conditions upon which the pupil is allowed to take the work of the higher class, and, if the parent is not willing to accept the conditions, the pupil shall not be promoted.

It shall be the duty of the principal to notify the parent whenever the pupil is doing such work as, in the judgment of the principal or teacher, will endanger the pupil's promotion, and he shall preserve copies of said letters until the question of the pupil's promotion is definitely settled.

In case of the transfer of a pupil to another building, a record of his standing shall be sent to the receiving principal.

In a valuable set of tables in the report of the superintendent of schools at Milwaukee for 1899 the varying rate of progress of different pupils is shown, and also the number and time in each grade of pupils not promoted, and the number and average age

of the pupils promoted from each grade. A brief summary of the results is contained in the following figures, which have been worked out from the tables as a fairly close approximation: Out of 1,847 seventh-grade pupils in thirty-two schools, of an average age of 13 years 7 months, in June 1899, 33 were eleven years of age, 237 twelve years, 694 thirteen years, 531 fourteen years, 240 fifteen years, 84 sixteen years, and 28 seventeen years.

The accompanying figures represent all the forty-seven schools of the city (including Day School for the Deaf):

	Not promoted (1898–9)	Not promoted after 4 semesters	Promoted (1898–9)	Average age of promoted
				yrs. mths.
First Grade . .	5048	342	3827	8 0
Second Grade .	751	5	3644	9 3
Third Grade . .	460	9	3186	10 4½
Fourth Grade .	362	4	2858	11 5
Fifth Grade . .	372	5	2119	12 5
Sixth Grade . .	368	3	1775	13 6
Seventh Grade .	168	1	1337	14 3
Eighth Grade .	76	0	1099	15 3

As the report is concerned with the principle of individuality in education, the figures of the School for the Deaf deserve separate mention:

	Not promoted (1898–9)	Promoted (1898–9)	Average age of promoted	Mean age of pupils in grades [deaf] June, 1899
			yrs. mths.	yrs.
First Grade . .	10	7	8 3	6
Second Grade .	4	5	9 7	8
Third Grade . .	—	6	12 2	10
Fourth Grade .	—	—	—	12
Fifth Grade . .	3	—	—	12½
Sixth Grade . .	3	—	—	13
Seventh Grade .	—	3	16 0	16

(*d*) *Country Schools and Ungraded Schools.*

The growing acceptance of the principle of individual promotion in no way diminishes the importance of careful and close grading. It rather tends to accentuate it, though, as has been suggested, with a possible modification of the meaning of the words 'grade' and 'promotion.' There seems to be an influence in this direction upon the city schools which is due to the excellent service rendered by many of the ungraded country schools. The *work* is necessarily graded even in ungraded schools, and promotion has the very vital meaning of progress. In his report on 'Moral Education in American Schools,'[1] the writer has shown that many of the city schools require that this should be more definitely regarded as the essential thing in 'promotion' or 'grading,' especially in the sixth, seventh and eighth school years. Grading means not alternatively a grading of pupils or a grading of work, but both the one and the other. To pass on to later pages in one and the same text-book, if the book is written throughout from the same standpoint and is of practically equal difficulty, is not 'grading,' even though pages 180 to 240 be studied solely in the sixth grade, and page 240 to the end in the seventh. The message and contribution of the ungraded country schools has been that there must be *promotion in work* to meet the growing intellectual powers of children, and to afford the consciousness of progress and growth of power. It is remarkable that where individual influence is specially required, as in the case of refractory boys and truants, the cities revert to the ungraded school. The boy is

[1] *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, published by the Board of Education of England and Wales, vol. ix.

not pitted against some inexorable standard of attainment, the work of such and such a grade, but simply against his own ignorance and inertia, and is encouraged to promote himself as compared with the same boy of yesterday, last week, or last term. Some of the most pleasing work, because in surface appearance the least promising, is being done in these city ungraded schools. The proportion of affection developed towards the teacher, when, as seems to be the case quite generally, the right teacher is selected for the work, as compared with the roughness of the boys' home surroundings and past history, is one of most hopeful signs of the moral and spiritual influence of the educator.

The report of a Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools presented to the National Council of Education (National Educational Association) deals very fully with the question of grading in country schools. The sub-committee on Instruction and Discipline consisted of Dr. W. T. Harris (chairman), Mr. Addison B. Poland, and Mr. Lloyd E. Wolfe. Amongst the points considered and reported upon were the want of classification, the consequent lack of the stimulus which comes to the pupil from working at reasonable tasks in company with his equals, and the debated question as to whether individual instruction should be preferred to the instruction in the same class of pupils who are more than a year apart in their advancement. To start with the facts. About one-half of all the teachers in the United States are teachers of ungraded schools. 'They receive in one room pupils of all ages and all degrees of advancement, from A.B.C.'s upward, sometimes even to algebra and Latin. In extreme cases each pupil is a class by himself in all branches, except perhaps reading, writing, and spelling.' So far as the isolated rural school

is concerned, Dr. Harris is prepared to accept the dilemma—in such a school the teaching must be mainly individual in spite of the superficial and unsatisfactory character which, from the circumstances of the case, such teaching must possess. On the one hand, 'any attempt to instruct two or more pupils in a class, when there is a difference of a year's work in their advancement, results in humiliating and discouraging the less advanced and in making the maturer pupils conceited.' On the other hand, 'The teacher, even after forming classes in writing, reading, and spelling, has twelve to fifteen lessons to hear in a forenoon and nearly as many for the afternoon. There is an average of less than ten minutes for each recitation. . . . The good teacher is not satisfied with a memoriter recitation of the details of a lesson—still less with a word-for-word rendering of the text-book. Not the mere words of the book, nor even the disconnected facts or details which the words indicate, but to bring out the thought which unites these details and explains them, is the main object of the good recitation. But such a recitation requires time. The teacher cannot probe the pupil's knowledge in five minutes and correct his bad habits of study—nor in ten minutes. . . . It is for this reason, more especially, that the rural school has been the parent of poor methods of instruction—of parrot memorising and of learning words instead of things. . . . The ideal classified school can teach and does teach proper methods of study;[1] the rural school cannot do this effectively in its five- or ten-

[1] For a fuller statement of the theory of the recitation, see page 86. Scholars and statesmen and professional men of eminence have come from ungraded schools, for 'as late as 1850 at least 80 per cent. of all the public schools were ungraded, there being only 12½ per cent. of the population resident in cities. The rural school threw on the pupil the burden of his education.'

minute recitations.' Education, however, means too much to the American citizen, not to say to the leaders of educational life, for a riddle of this kind to be left unsolved. The American Ambassador said, in a recent speech at Burnley (November 1900), that his countrymen had made education their chief industry. How, then, is the problem of the country school being solved?

We have already seen that, by adopting a system of sectional teaching, the city schools, and such as are considered perfectly well graded, find no difficulty in placing, say, 4A and 5B grades under one teacher; and that in Santa Barbara, California, a threefold division of the same grade under one teacher has been adopted with success. These two instances present the limiting cases of a valid classification, on the basis of classification by grades (or 'form'-classification). With the far smaller numbers attending the country school the same limits do not obtain. A fifteen minutes' recitation with six pupils whom the teacher knows individually, both in the school and in their village life, is as valuable as twenty-five or thirty minutes with a class of from twenty to thirty. But the number of fifteen-minute periods per half-dozen pupils in the school day is soon told, even supposing there be half-dozens that can be advantageously graded together. And the question remains, Shall fifth and sixth, and seventh and eighth grades be taught together? or, is there an alternative? Mr. Wolfe in a thoughtful statement at the close of the sub-committee's report shows that the practice of classification according to the separate subjects of study ('subject'-classification) in some measure meets the difficulty. 'The fundamental principle underlying *grading* is symmetrical development—advancing the pupil with equal pace in

all the branches ; the fundamental principle underlying *classifying* is harmonious development—advancing him in harmony with his individual capabilities. . . . Classification and its correlative principle of harmonious development are the corner-stone of the rural school.' But Mr. Wolfe's argument in favour of the strong movement which has been witnessed recently in many of the States of the Union towards grading in the rural schools, even though it lead to grouping pupils who are more than a year apart, is less convincing. He seeks an answer to the objection that the more advanced pupils will be kept marking time, while the less advanced will be dragged along at an unnatural rate. In view of the importance of the whole question of country schools and their internal management, and of the value to the village child of the best opportunity which the school can give him individually, Mr. Wolfe's words may be quoted at length. He says :

If practical adaptation of instruction to the capacity of the pupil were really attainable in the graded school, I should hesitate to recommend a classification that would group, in one class, pupils more than a year apart in their advancement. But such adaptation is largely ideal and theoretical. However well the school be graded, the strongest pupils and the weakest are separated by a long distance in the character or grade of their work. Whether in the primary, the grammar, the high school, the college, or the university, a certain per cent. of the students do most of the highest order of work. These strongest pupils discover and develop the deepest relations. The weaker pupils soon learn to repeat the stereotyped expressions of these relations, and to store them away in their memories, to be fished forth at stated intervals by the written test. . . . My answer is [to the objection above quoted] that the stronger pupils will do the higher order of thinking, just as they always do, while the weaker pupils will do the lower order of thinking, as they always do, getting some knowledge from the books,

some from the teacher, and some from their stronger classmates. The rural school has the advantage over the city school in that its pupils learn much from the recitation of classes to which they do not belong. In a graded school the walls of the schoolroom shut pupils out from what is being recited in other grades. In a rural school the pupil can listen to the recitation of any grade. You tell me that this is [loss of?] absorption, that the pupil gets this outside knowledge at the expense of the preparation of his own lessons, and that the practice of listening to other recitations militates against the principle that a great aim in education is to learn to master the printed page ; but it is nevertheless the testimony of many of our greatest educators that the knowledge thus obtained by them in the country school was invaluable.

There are one or two points where this series of arguments is unconvincing. In the first place, there is a great difference between character of work, which is, so to say, a universal quality applicable to all grades or standards of a given curriculum, and the class or standard of the work. An argument based on differences in the *character* of the work done by individuals appears irrelevant to the necessarily more formal matter of grading. A student who has passed his London Matriculation (whether in the second division, or at the head of the honours' list) enters upon classes preparing for the Intermediate Examination in his faculty ; that is his grade, and it has almost no connection with the *character* of his work, or the depth of the relations which he discovers and develops. If the argument tells either way, it would seem to favour another subdivision ; for if the recitation is to have its full value to this best class of pupils, it must follow them in their thought and piece together their views into a co-ordinated whole ; but at this point those who 'from their very mental constitution abstain from the strongest mental diet' are

presumably left behind. Higher and lower orders of thinking there undoubtedly are; but, allowing for this, there are also in every course of studies higher and lower subjects or portions of a subject to which during the period of education the thought of all classes of students is directed. A pupil ought to be promoted in the scale of studies as fast as, *up to the limits of his power of assimilation*, he is capable of assimilating them. This demand for unceasing promotion exists irrespective of higher or lower thinking capacity. Non-ruminating animals can only be kept healthy by giving them fresh food; and the ruminator is quite as obviously outraged if advantage is taken of his ruminating tendencies to keep him short of food. One cannot but agree with the main body of the report in which adaptation of instruction to capacity is made the controlling principle in the rural school.[1]

But, beyond this, a very practical expedient has been recommended and is being adopted, namely, the consolidation of schools and the transportation or conveyance of pupils. The necessity for some such step has been brought home to those responsible for rural education by the actual decrease of population in many country districts. Professor B. A. Hinsdale has ascertained that between 1880 and 1890 more than 400 counties, or about five times as many as there are in the State of Ohio, suffered in this way. He gives in a paper read, in 1896, before the National Educational Association an illustration of what is to be gained in rural education by consolidation of schools.

Some twenty years ago I investigated one of the old townships in northern Ohio with respect to its school condition,

[1] It is interesting to note a suggestion in the report that some form of 'pupil teaching' might be advantageous in rural schools.

and with these results: Schools, 7 in number; youth of school age enumerated, 191; pupils enrolled in schools, 103; average daily attendance, 71; average size of schools, 10 pupils; largest enumeration in any district, 85; smallest, 12; largest enrolment, 37; smallest, 3; largest daily attendance, 25; smallest, 3; largest cost per pupil in any district, $42.60; smallest, $18.56. The average cost per pupil the same year in the State was $13.36. How much better it would have been if the seven schools could have been consolidated, thus putting all the pupils under two or three teachers.

Even taking this to be an extreme case, one is not surprised to hear that there has been for some years a decided tendency on the part of progressive communities to close the small schools in remote districts and to convey the children to the graded schools of the villages, chiefly on educational grounds. The leading arguments in favour of and against the movement have been summarised by Mr. A. W. Edson, Associate Superintendent of Schools in New York, formerly one of the Massachusetts State agents. The most serious objections are,—removing the children to a distance from their homes for the whole day, the cold midday meal, the absence of oversight during the dinner-hour. The advantages are many. Better grading is possible; the school-year is lengthened; better teachers are obtained; supervision is easier and more effective; special subjects can be better taught, such as drawing and music; the school buildings and the whole of the school furnishing are superior; the children come into touch with larger numbers and enjoy a more enthusiastic school life; public interest in the schools is stronger; the children attend more regularly; the school is worked more economically. Two of the townships of north-eastern Ohio adopted the plan of con-

solidation and transportation five or six years ago, with an immediate saving of outlay and an increase of educational efficiency. It was adopted about the same time in Sioux City for the children of thinly settled suburban districts, a permissive clause being added to the School Laws of Iowa for the purpose. An account of the progress of the movement to 1894–95 was contained in the Report of the Bureau of Education for that year, from which it appeared that Massachusetts, Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey and other States had adopted the system, the way having been led by Massachusetts. In 1897–98 Massachusetts expended $123,032 upon the conveyance of children to more central schools. As a result improvement is reported throughout the rural districts of the State in the classification or grading of pupils, in the quality of teachers and their work, in the efficiency of the pupils, in general school-spirit, and, as a rule, in school buildings and equipment.

The brief and necessarily imperfect summary in this chapter of American principles, experiments, and proposals with regard to the classification in their schools, both urban and rural, is a first step towards presenting the answer of American educators to the questions tersely put by Principal Adams, of Glasgow: 'Is John a boy, or a quotient? Is he the actual boy planted there, rudiments in hand, to learn a certain bit of Latin; or is he a vague abstraction, a sort of generalised boy who answers to the "male child" of the dictionary? Is he the result of subtraction or of division? Do we get him by simply subtracting him from the seventy in his class; or do we pound the whole seventy in our psychological mortar till they form a uniform mass of boyhood, and then divide by seventy? Is there an

average John?'[1] Some might also interpret what has been here described as an answer to the challenge addressed by Thring to the teachers of England: 'Oh, teachers of England, if there is any hope, strive for liberty to teach. Have mercy on the slow, the ignorant, the weak. Their lives are the stake. Let there be liberty to improve. Let there be some liberty.'[2] In the light of such recent improvements in the administration of our public elementary schools as the practical abolition of formal examinations, and the gradual refinement of our methods of inspection, even Thring might have taken heart of grace, and not have begged the pardon of his hearers for 'having broken silence in a lost cause.'

[1] *Herbartian Psychology*, p. 19. [2] *Adaresses*, p. 25.

CHAPTER IV

INDIVIDUALITY AND COLLECTIVE TEACHING

'Thought is squeezed out of existence by the weight of other people's facts.'

FAITH in the school is the instinctive confession on the part of civilised peoples of faith in childhood. It is in this practical fashion of school building and school maintenance that we express the belief that it is well for children to be together. With an enlarging faith in childhood comes a tendency to make the school less and less the teacher's workshop, and more and more the home of the child's near and vital interests. A true school is the expression, or an all-essential help to the expression, of the child's own life. This has probably never been realised anywhere or at any time in the world's history as it is realised in America to-day. Speaking at the Leys School, Cambridge, in June 1899, the Right Hon. A. J. Balfour said of the English 'public' schools, 'I do not believe that anybody knows what the origin of the public school system in England is. It is a very remarkable system. It flourishes, so far as I know, nowhere except upon Anglo-Saxon soil, or except among those who speak the English tongue. It owes its birth to no great Minister of Education, nor to the carefully thought-out schemes of any great religious body, such as those religious bodies which have done so

much for good or for evil in developing education on the Continent. It would be hard, I think, to say whether the English school system has been made by the masters for the boys, or by the boys for the masters.' The public schools of America were aptly described to the writer as combining with the purpose of the English elementary school very much of the spirit of the English secondary schools. These are the days of what is spoken of in America as the 'new education,' which would seem to mean, as nearly as a single sentence can express it, that the master has to learn by study of the child how to teach, and that the child's willing co-operation is the principal test as to how well he has succeeded.

Towards this ideal our elementary public schools are slowly tending; and when our methods of school administration and school inspection make it possible for men of similar early opportunities to those who take masterships in the higher secondary schools to realise that there is the same scope to deal with the man in the boy, and the same response from the boys so dealt with, awaiting them in the people's schools, we shall have begun to incorporate in these schools the essential spirit of an English national education. The spirit once there, the system will follow.

In America there are two causes which have already brought this generous extension of freedom of life and spirit into the public schools. One is that in America it is democracy first, whatever comes second; the other is the never absent consciousness of the future of America, of what her sons and daughters are to make her.

Hence the whole of the American system centres increasingly in the child. The two greatest external influences in American education are Pestalozzi and

Froebel ; the two great internal influences are democracy and the thought of the future, of which the present is the upbuilding.

If what Principal Adams says, speaking of the two accusatives governed by verbs of teaching, is true in this country, that 'the person is now for the first time coming to his proper place before his fellow-accusative the thing,' still more is it true in America. Some even seem to think they can teach the boy and leave the lesson to take care of itself.[1] But this is an excess to remedy which influences are setting in from various quarters. The good thing that one observes, not only in the university and the kindergarten, which Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler speaks of as the two great conservators of individualism in American education, but in the intervening stages, is the part which students and pupils take individually in the work of the class.

University and College.

In most university and college subjects there is a 'seminar,' that is to say, an hour or hour and a half in the week when by written essay, or by taking part in conversation, the learner comes to the front. In appearance the seminar is a method of teaching by self-effacement, and yet the whole time one is made to feel that the leader is the strong man of the situation, and, moreover, that he is teaching what his students most need to know. Many, possibly most, of the teachers' meetings, to be later spoken of, are conducted by principals, supervisors of subjects, and city superintendents in this way. In addition to 'seminars' of

[1] See certain sections in *Report on Moral Education in American Schools.*

this kind, the writer attended a law lecture at the Columbia University, which was conducted on what is known as the 'case method.' A student takes up a case from the text-book, states it, and the professor argues it out with him. It was a class of fully two hundred pupils, but the interest and attention to the argument, whether the student or the professor was speaking, was remarkable. Of course others in the room were called upon for their contributions to the discussion.

Professor Hanus, of Harvard University, gave as examples of ways in which university and college methods diverge from the 'lecture' plan pure and simple, and move out towards the individual learner: (1) Class conferences and 'quizzes,' a sort of oral examination of the class, by assistants appointed for the purpose. Sometimes the men are taken singly; Professor Hanus has an assistant, e.g. who takes the men individually once a month in the history of education, and questions them upon the prescribed reading. (2) Hour examinations, which may or may not be announced beforehand. (3) Some of the professors conduct advanced classes largely by discussion, the literature of the subject being read up by the students; Professor Taussig, of Harvard, conducts a class of seventy by the discussion method. (4) Theses written by the students, which are sometimes very comprehensive pieces of work. Opportunity was afforded to attend a 'quiz' at the Michigan State University. Like the 'seminar,' a form of individualising in university class work, it is also like it in needing a good deal of judgment on the part of the professor or lecturer to know when to be actively the leader and when to leave the class in the hands of the individual contributors. The 'quiz' is

not strictly an examination period, but combines lecture, conference, and questioning. Professor Hinsdale, of Ann Arbor, holds that in a class of 160 students as much good could be done by having a good text-book and meeting one-third of the number weekly for a 'quiz' as by delivering three lectures a week to the whole number. Lecturing, he thinks, is not the way to instruct the mind ; the student is in considerable danger —*quis non confitetur?*—of becoming a hearing and writing machine.

The High School.

Two advocates of special ways of introducing individuality into mass education were referred to in the last chapter, Mr. Kennedy, of Batavia, and Mr. Shearer. A third is Mr. P. W. Search, whose method, which is primarily one of teaching and only secondarily of classification, is known as the Pueblo system, from the fact that it was first introduced during his superintendency of the schools of that city. Some of the high school pupils were suffering from over-pressure. Where the work is so arranged that there are several teachers dealing with one child, the total demands made upon him are often greater than any teacher individually would wish. The superintendent issued an order that studies out of school hours were to be abolished. The teachers had to adapt their methods in order to make it possible to get the required work done within school hours, and the superintendent found in a short time that directing the studies and giving needed help was taking the place of the recitation. The recitation or oral lesson gave place to a working period to which the recitation was rather incidental. It was found after some months that there was no falling off in the amount of work done,

and that the high school was able to prepare for the college as before. The pupils improved in health, and were able within school hours to do more work than had taken them many hours in the week of evening preparation in addition to the time spent in school. Now that the pupils were doing the work themselves, and there was no uniform recitation, the necessity of keeping the pupils together began to disappear. Some pupils could accomplish three times as much work as others. Take, for example, a class beginning 'Caesar.'[1] In 150 hours of work A may do 110 chapters, B 90, C 140, O 45, P 45, T 40; if they had been working by the class method during the same time, they would all have done fifty-five chapters. Almost all were found to gain. Though complete individualisation was not the idea at the outset, the practice gradually shaped itself in that direction, and the greater part of the school work came to resemble laboratory work, in which each individual takes his own pace. But the class method was not eliminated, partly because of its being necessary to the pupil to have contact with his fellows, and also because there were always a number working approximately together. For example, ten out of a class section of twenty-two had done eighty chapters. What was fundamentally achieved was—whether, in view of what is to be said later, it was pedagogically good or bad is another question—to transform the plan of the recitation which tested the pupil's work already done into the guidance of the pupil whilst learning, making the test incidental to such guidance. The individual pupil rather than the class section became the unit, and the learner was trained in self-reliance and self-direction. Grouping was accessory,

[1] Book I., 54 chapters; Book II., 35; Book III., 29; and Book IV., 38.

and purely flexible. As to some of the disadvantages, the whole scheme betrays a certain misgiving as to the collective recitation, and, if one judges rightly, a certain misinterpretation of its method and aim. When its author speaks of pupils capable of self-direction not being subjected to check, criticism, and help at every point, or having to listen to the checks, criticisms, and helps given to others when the matter is perfectly plain to themselves, one feels that this is no true interpretation of the manner and spirit of a good collective lesson. That mass education is liable to this criticism is sufficiently familiar, especially in the amount of time that is often frittered away in what is called 'discipline,' and in the way in which boys who are ready to answer, and so to help in teaching the others, are checked, and made to wait while the idle or dull lead the teacher into a repetition of what he had been saying, less clear in statement, generally speaking, than his first attempt; an obvious case of too much of the teacher and too little of the bright and active members of the class. The special mention of Latin, which was chosen by Mr. Search to illustrate his method, suggests that it was the condition of things in the high school which led to the Pueblo experiment; and owing to one or two special causes, particularly the general inadequacy of the last two or three years of the graded school course as a preparation for the work of the high school, some such change might well be a relief of the nervous strain upon the pupil. That this strain exists is a matter of common testimony.[1] As a high school or secondary school method the Pueblo plan has far more to say for itself than as applicable to the graded schools. Where, as

[1] Art. 'Curriculum and Character-building' in *Report on Moral Education in American Schools.*

observation would lead one to judge, the actual need for 'study' comes upon the pupil with a rush, as he or she passes from the graded school to the high school, and has frequently a number of fresh subjects to enter upon, including some that ought to have been commenced in the grades, one can realise how a quiet school day of study at the desk, with brief recitations at intervals, and with the teacher present to give needed help, would be appreciated. One can remember similar valuable experiences in one's own secondary school days. Mr. Search is sceptical with regard to symmetrical education, which has been already referred to as the underlying principle of grading; he believes that children require an education that builds itself up along the line of their special abilities, a pedagogical faith which would break up some of our views upon education values at a stroke. To give Mr. Search's own words, 'Education aims in a degree to strengthen pupils where they are weak, but we do not expect a levelling up. It does not trouble me when I find a girl who cannot do mathematics; one can afford to recognise this if one gives development to the great trends, the great strengths.' Mr. Search, who is now engaged upon a book dealing with his plan and its results, has applied it in three places where he has been superintendent of schools—at Pueblo (Colorado), Los Angeles (California), and Holyoke (Massachusetts)—though without any desire to make it a uniform or mechanical system throughout the schools. A somewhat similar method was met with in Chicago, where in the high schools the teachers are subject teachers, not form teachers. The headmaster of the Englewood High School said that he felt that many pupils were ruined by trying to get over the ground more rapidly than their physical strength would allow them. 'Supposing

we have, as we shall, ten rooms entering in September,' said the Englewood principal, 'there will be a quick class amongst them, and the others will be slower; in eight weeks we can separate them; one class may finish the year's Latin in seven months, another in ten months, another may require fourteen months, i.e. four months out of the next school year. As a result, a bright pupil accomplishes in three years what will take some others four and a half or five years. We try to have graduation (equivalent to a "leaving certificate") when the pupil has done, in the middle of a month, or at any time. I do not mean that a pupil who is bright in algebra is necessarily bright in Latin, but when he has finished his algebra he can put more strength into his Latin with a view to graduating, and if he finds he has no ability in one subject he can be allowed to drop it, and to graduate in other subjects.' Now that Chicago is committed to a thorough-going system of electives (*Anglicé*, options) in high school work, it is believed that, taken with an easy system of grading, enabling pupils to travel at their own pace, the strain will be considerably relieved.

Amongst others advocating a method resembling that of Mr. Search, Mr. L. P. Nash, superintendent of schools at Holyoke, writes:

> In some of our schools, where classes are not too large, an individual plan of work is followed. For example, in grammar there is a certain book to be studied through. Pupils are permitted to go as fast as they like, writing up the exercises, and getting credit as fast as these are correctly finished.

A similar plan is described in a small pamphlet published by the American Book Company on 'Laboratory Methods of Teaching Mathematics in Secondary Schools,' by Miss Hornbrook. It was placed in the writer's hands and strongly

recommended by Dr. Lane, the able supervising principal of the Washington high schools. 'Under the old plan the highest aim of the pupil is to accomplish the work assigned each day. Under these plans the constant aim is to gain a clear knowledge of as much of the subject as possible. . . .

'There are always some pupils whose learning power is of the auditory type, who need the printed page interpreted by the living voice. For their benefit the teacher encourages the free discussion of difficulties and the asking of questions, with a view to the gradual acquirement of the power to read mathematics.

'In a short time the class becomes separated into groups at different stages of advancement. Then the work of group teaching begins. "All who wish an explanation of the principles on page 15 may pass to the board," is a sample of the teacher's directions. The explanation given, the group resume work at their seats. Perhaps the 18th problem, on page 23, is difficult, and several pupils, reaching it, report difficulty, and are told to wait for group work. One way of helping them and testing others is secured by giving orders like: "All the pupils in the third row who have solved problem 18th will place the work upon the board. All who cannot solve it may watch the work." Both groups take part in the explanations, one explaining, the other questioning, the teacher guiding. Those who are not concerned are working on their own problems. Under the class system the quick pupils would be obliged to waste their time in giving the semblance, at least, of attention to the explanations which are necessary for the slow, but which are not only unnecessary for the quick but positively harmful to them. If we accept the scientific theory of molecular motion in the cortex of the brain as a necessary accompaniment to thought, how shall we estimate the intellectual loss caused by the cerebral inactivity forced upon active-brained children by a system that requires them to limit their thinking to the capacity of their weaker brained companions, and prevents vigorous mental action by compelling them to take a receptive attitude toward the ready-made explanations which are of necessity given to the weaker ones who must be carried along with a class?'

The Elementary School.

Such methods of directed study and self-advancement in accordance with the pupil's own industry and ability belong largely to the secondary or high school. In the form above described they do not naturally belong to the graded schools. These schools require methods which make the utmost use of the recitation as an individualising instrument. In this connection the writer has the good fortune, through the helpful interest which Dr. W. T. Harris took in the inquiries upon which he was engaged, to be able to quote an article on Class Recitation from the St. Louis Report of 1870.[1] The balance between the two superficially opposing educational aims of individual stimulus and the collective spirit is so admirably presented that the article seems to have its fitting place in the text of the report, and not as an appendix.

I have tried to set down some of the true methods of conducting a class recitation, and to point out some of its advantages over the teaching of a private tutor or over the old *memoriter* system, supposed to be still in vogue in many schools in this country.

It should be explained that our American word 'recitation' is used in England to mean the declamation of a piece of prose or poetry committed to memory. What we call 'recitation' they call a 'lesson,' or a 'class exercise.' I have tried to set down briefly the true method of class recitation together and its advantages.

The good teacher knows how to manipulate his class as a *whole*. He knows how to bring every part of it to the support of every other part ; how to help each individual by means of the insights of his fellows.

[1] The article has been several times reprinted and the copies have been as often exhausted. Dr. Harris was good enough to have it type-written for the writer's use.

He thereby gains time to consider each subject thoroughly. But not only this, he manages the class in such a way as to bring out the details of the lesson in a variety of different aspects, each pupil giving the results of his own study, and learning from the others their results. This kaleidoscopic view of a subject as reflected from the minds of a whole class, when sifting and criticising are carried on under the teacher's direction, is of far greater benefit to each and every pupil of the class than a private recitation of the same lesson could have been, even with the teacher's whole time devoted to the one pupil. This will appear from the following consideration :

The good teacher does not waste very much of his time lecturing to his pupils on the theme of his lesson. He sets them to searching, each for himself, in preparing the lesson. Hence, when the class comes to recitation he has nearly his whole time to compare and bring together results, and need not take up time in merely communicating information.

The first object of his recitation is to draw out each pupil's own view of the subject-matter of the lesson. Accordingly, as one after another recites, our teacher probes beneath the mere first statements for the more comprehensive phases which should lie in the pupil's mind if he understands what he is reciting. By a few searching questions the pupil is brought up against some phase of his lesson that his thoughts had not reached. Now begins the real work of the recitation; this pupil shall now supplement or perfect his own views by those of others. The teacher rapidly calls out from a dozen other members of the class, all eager to add their statements, just what is needed to correct the one-sided character of the recitation of the first pupil. It will always happen, in getting at this result, that several new phases—not even in the mind of the teacher at the moment—are elicited, all tending to clear up and amplify the exposition.

The teacher is well aware that by drawing out from the different members of the class before him these statements and corrections he is accomplishing far more for them than his own statements or corrections could do. Not what he does

directly, but what he gets the pupil to do, is of value. There are two aspects of this which deserve special note :

1. The statement of an idea in a pupil's own words is apt to be better fitted to the capacity of comprehension which his fellows possess, and therefore to arouse more vivid ideas in their minds. The necessary crudeness and narrowness of such ideas get corrected by the variation of statement which is obtained from the different members of the class. Each pupil sees several phases that entirely escaped him in the course of his own investigation, and even the particular view that he seized is made clearer by the discussion.

2. The pupil is aroused and stimulated to a new method of study on the next lesson. He has obtained a peep through the lenses of other minds, and cannot fail to remember these different points of view in preparing a new lesson. It is, moreover, a practical collision of one intellect with another, and acumen is sharpened and habits of the closest attention are engendered.

In the other form of recitation all these advantages are lacking. By what means can the teacher make up for the want of that powerful stimulus to activity which the presence of enthusiastic classmates gives to the pupil? How can the teacher so adapt his own explanations and corrections to the mind of his pupil as to produce the same enlightening results as the re-statements of his classmates do? Finally, by what means can the teacher arouse himself to that height of thought which the presence of a class of eager pupils excites in him? One pupil looking one way is nothing to a score or more with different points of view ; they take in the whole horizon, and the teacher must ascend to the most comprehensive platform in order to be equal to the occasion.

Those educators who would look for superior instruction from the private individual tuition of the teacher certainly mistake the nature of true education. Self-activity, power for independent research, acute, critical insight—how can these be obtained apart from contact with one's fellowmen striving toward the same goal? There can be no doubt that such people are misled into the belief that cramming, or one-sided capricious insights, are better than these qualities.

The educator who has looked widely over the field does not need to be told that just here lies the most important point in pedagogy. The initiation of the youth into the great secret of combinations with his fellowmen—where can it be done so well as in the school? The school should help each struggling boy or girl to ascend above his idiosyncrasy and achieve the universal forms of activity which will make the free man or woman. It is clear that, with the close personal relation of the private tutor, the chances are against that emancipation of individuality which the school secures. The privately educated youth is apt to be non-sympathetic, and to be uncertain and hesitating in his dealing with men. He has not learned by early contact with youth of his own age how to suppress what is merely subjective and peculiar to himself, and how to square his views with what is objective and universal. Hence he lacks directive power among his fellowmen, and this is the most serious defect in the culture of his life. He must borrow directive power from others.

Such an education is a preparation for a misanthropic, unhappy life, and only the force of circumstances can overcome its damaging effects.

This discussion, as before intimated, has likewise a bearing on the question of the relative merits of oral and text-book instruction. Is it not clear how far the *memoriter* recitation is from the recitation conducted by a good teacher? The teacher who allows parrot-like repetition of the words in the book to pass unquestioned is not a teacher that deserves to have charge of a class at all. He has not learned to manipulate the instrument placed in his hands, and would accomplish just as much with pupils taken individually as in classes.

While the good oral teacher secures many of these advantages, he is not able to secure all. The pupils come before him to receive information on the day's lesson and not to be critically tested on what they have done and on the methods they have used. It is true that they can be tested on the previous lesson, but it would be better to have them responsible also for definite labour on the lesson of to-day. Meanwhile, if the oral instructor is comparatively no better than a majority of teachers in schools as they are, it is evident that the pupils

will not be powerfully aroused to self-activity of any sort except play. Yet even memorising the words of the book is self-activity, although of a very low order; it is certainly a higher activity than the process of repeating statements after the dictation of the teacher.

But the good teacher will strive by all means to develop in his pupils the most rapid growth of mental independence. He will teach him how to pursue his investigations on any topic by sifting to the very bottom the statements made in the book. Under the good teacher a pupil will learn to compare one assertion with another, and one man's view with another's; to verify his ideas by consulting different authorities; to gain a comprehensive insight by exhausting the sources of information on a given subject. Original investigation should not so much precede as follow a mastery of what has already been accomplished. No one in his senses would recommend a young man to spend his time endeavouring to make discoveries in electricity or chemistry before he had made himself acquainted with the present developments in those provinces.

The pupil's searching that is spoken of is done both in school and as home-work. But if this is not skilfully made use of by the teacher, upon the lines of Dr. Harris's paper, there remains a very real and not unfrequently realised danger of each pupil remaining at the end of the recitation practically where he was at the outset. 'There are plenty of beads,' as a distinguished educationist expressed it, 'but no string to string them on.' A series of individual contributions, results of research (sometimes both in method and subject-matter premature research), calls for considerable constructive power on the teacher's part; otherwise there is no unity arrived at, and comparatively little mental training as a result of the collective lesson. Dr. Harris himself anticipates this query in his monograph on 'Elementary Education,' contributed to the United States Educa-

tional Exhibit at Paris, 1900: 'It will be asked: What proportion of the teachers of cities and villages habitually use this higher method in conducting recitations? According to a careful estimate, at least one-half of them may reasonably claim to have some skill in its use; of the one-half in the elementary schools who use it, perhaps two-fifths conduct all their recitations so as to make the work of their pupils help each individual in correcting defects of observation and critical alertness. Perhaps the other three-fifths use the method in teaching some branches, but cling to the old memoriter system for the rest. It may be claimed for graduates of normal schools that a large majority follow the better method.'

So far back as the middle of the seventeenth century we have a statement of this view regarding collective teaching, instead of teaching either individually or only two or three at a time. Comenius suggests a method of class organisation which he seems to have thought sufficiently elastic to accommodate any number under one teacher—it was in some ways a forecast of the monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster—with boy-monitors, each in charge of a group of ten. Hoole, in 'The New Discovery of the Old Art of Teaching School, 1660,' says: 'Let their lessons be the same to each boy in every form, and let the master proportion them to the meanest capacities; thus those that are abler may profit themselves by helping their weaker fellowes, and those that are weaker be encouraged to see that they can keep company with the stronger.' To quote yet another old-time authority, and going back for this purpose to the first century of the Christian era, Quintilian makes use of one of the striking similes for which his style is conspicuous, when urging that it is

often both easier and more natural for children to learn from their schoolfellows than from their master; they will, he says, fix upon that which is nearest to them, 'as vines attached to trees gain the top by taking hold of the lower branches first.'

This is evidently approaching the idea of individuality by means of collective teaching on a different side from that proposed by individual instruction systems. It is using the class to correct the individual and to enlarge his outlook; so that he acquires the habit of thinking not only in ways natural to himself, but in part also in ways in which his teacher or fellow-pupils think. His mind is reinforced by their minds. This is the one way in which the class-room life broadens out the individuality of those who form part of it. 'If, as is a common ambition amongst American teachers, the school aims to teach the child how to study, one way in which it does this is to enable children to take a broad view of knowledge as a collective possession to be attained by collective means. Some teachers still speak as if telling a child to "go to the library and look it up," is teaching him to study.' To some extent it is so; but whether it really is so in the fuller sense will depend upon the setting which the teacher provides for the information with which the child returns, and upon her manipulation of the broken lights shed upon the subject by other members of the class. 'Education means that we can break the magic ring which encircles us and enter into communion with other minds.'[1]

[1] Mr. Search, therefore, has the entirely wrong notion when he says: 'The ideal school calls for the abolition of class recitation and the substitution of the period for continuous advance work. The class recitation is too expensive. It is full of dead time, of passivity, of lethargy; while every exercise of the schoolroom should be full of vigor, of activity, of progress. I admit there are several good elements in the class recitation,

So far we have been speaking generally of system in teaching and systems of teaching. There are, however, specific methods in use in American schoolrooms which bring out the individual learner. The nature of the home-work given, the art-work and nature-study, the use of the wall-slate or blackboard by the pupils, extensions of the kindergarten occupations, pupils' questions, compositions, individual expression in reading, as well as methods applying to special subjects in the school courses, all exemplify this fact. Reference to these points must for brevity's sake be made in a somewhat disconnected fashion.

(*a*) The theory of much of the home-work that is set (in some instances one might more truly say *allowed*) to pupils in the best schools, is that the truest individual work is that which the child, after a thorough training in the principles of it in class, does for himself. The best class-work aims to put the child in possession of general principles and points of view, to place him, that is, in a position of being able to strike out for himself, and then leaving him largely to his own initiative. In the Ethical Culture Schools, New York, this plan is

but there is not a single one that may not characterise the individual exercise.' Still more is he wrong when he says: 'Given forty-five minutes of time and forty-five pupils, that means on the plan of recitation one minute to each pupil.' He is doubtless right, however, when he says: 'The teacher is frequently in the way of the advancement of the individual. Sometimes this arises from the over-zealousness of the teacher, who seems to feel that life is short and a moment lost now is irretrievably lost. Consequently the recitation is crowded full of statements and undigested facts. . . . We so easily forget that the pupil grows only by that which he makes his own. In education there is no such thing as substitution of effort.' Probably one of the drollest things in educational literature is the account Dr. Rice, editor of the *Forum*, gives of a visit to a New York school, where the principal's maxim consisted of three words: 'Save the minutes.' . . . 'By giving the child ready-made thoughts, the minutes required in thinking are saved,' &c., &c.

followed in the manual training room with marked success. The class-work is made so suggestive that the children carry work home on their own initiative, suggesting their own undertakings and often working in groups upon one model. Children so stimulated worry neither themselves nor their parents with their home-work; on the contrary, the rest of the family are generally interested in their efforts. 'The great chance for children to attain individuality,' said the teacher, who is quite as much an educationist as a manual training teacher, 'is to give them close attention during brief periods, and then let them alone.' That this is no merely self-defensive theory, is shown by the fact that this teacher has two or three classes of volunteers (two afternoons boys, one afternoon girls), who prefer to work at the school-bench and under the trainer's eye. Most of the boys were making boats or bent-ironwork models. Similar voluntary work is done by the art teacher, especially on Saturday mornings. It is found that the limit of bench-room and art-work accommodation generally sets the limit to the number of children present at these optional classes.

(*b*) A plan sometimes adopted in the schools with the view of giving sufficient scope to a child's energy, and to separate those who by their knowledge of a subject stand in the way of more backward children doing their best, is for the teacher to set the child an individual task in the subject. At Washington, for example, where the class-rooms are well supplied with books of reference, the superintendent said a teacher might tell a child to look up the history of such and such a State and write a composition about it. The boy has a task in hand which may take him a month, and which may at the end of the time contain the materials of a magazine article. He is occupying his

powers along the lines of the ordinary class-work ; he is kept to some extent out of the class where his interest in the subject made him too conspicuous a figure ; and he is gaining information with which he may reinforce the class-work at a later period in the sober spirit of one who has worked hard for what he knows. This is a device for dealing with a bright child, with a special interest in a subject, whose enthusiasm the teacher does not wish to check, and yet who by his very eagerness stands in the way of the rest of the class. But in a general way, as stated by the principal of the Wallach School in Washington, where excellent proof was given of the power which children are capable of acquiring of self-direction in their school work, teachers do 'not resort so much to bringing the smart child forward, as, for example, in working on the blackboard, but aim rather to bring the duller ones forward, leaving the rest to criticise. Often a row of the duller ones will be told to go to the blackboard (wall slate) and write their desk-work there, the others working at their desks. You have no idea how apt and bright the dull one becomes.'

(*c*) Everything is done to make learning not a formal task, but a part of the child's personal experience. The points of the compass are taught to the Washington children by taking them to the Capitol, from which as centre the streets run due north, south, east, and west, dividing the city into four quarters ; the child's home address, as N.W., S.E., &c., is in this way made use of in teaching geography ; measurements are taken of schoolroom and playground ; visits are paid to places illustrating geography lessons ; and the officials at the Government bureaux are always ready to entertain classes or groups of children, and to place their

knowledge at their disposal. The results of observations are afterwards worked out on the sandboard, or in the form of charts. Notes were taken of a geography lesson that was being given in a school at Worcester. In one corner of the room was a bulletin-board headed 'Bulletin, April 25, 1900.' 'Lord Roberts has an army of 40,000 near Wepener.' 'Mafeking in desperate straits, and Baden-Powell cannot keep up the defenders' courage.' These entries are made by the children before school, and more are added during recess. A section of the map of South Africa, in coloured crayons, illustrated these daily references. The geography lesson itself consisted of children's contributions to the topic, which had reference to the Southern States. One girl referred to Longfellow's 'The Slave in the Dismal Swamp,' and the attention of the class being called to the poem in this way, the teacher said that probably by the next lesson there would be a dozen who had read it. The children were not asked questions. The teacher called upon one and another by name, and they told what they had read relating to the lesson. A large amount of incident and human interest was in this way associated with the places mentioned. The geography had given the children topics for reading, and had begun to live before them in virtue of human interests and associations; the teacher asking each child where he or she had got the information from. There is no tendency to dissipation of mental energy or to undue relaxation in *well-conducted* lessons of this kind.

(*d*) This lesson resembled in some ways what is known as 'developing work.' This name is given to a process whereby the children work out a subject collectively by voluntary suggestions of points as they occur to them. Such lessons were seen in history and in

civics. At the beginning of the lesson half a dozen may rise to show that they have contributions to make to the 'development' of the lesson. If a speaker makes the same contribution as one already standing had intended to make, the latter sits down. A single remark will often suggest points to three or four others; so that after a lesson has been going on for a quarter of an hour there may be more who are anxious to speak than when the lesson began. The idea is that each child is aiming to contribute some new point, the class as a whole working out the lesson orally before the teacher; for the first quarter of an hour or twenty minutes the teacher's part being outwardly the purely automatic one of calling upon each speaker. Lessons of this kind are found possible in language, history, geography, and even arithmetic. The history subject might be the French explorers of a certain period, assigned to a class of forty children twelve years of age. Naturally, the whole of these forty children are not in a position to take up such a subject and obtain equal results. A certain number will be able just to do the work in the little text-book used, and if they do that they will be doing well. There will be two or three, the natural percentage of dullards, who, with the best stimulus the teacher can apply, will fall short even of that. But, on the other hand, there will be a considerable number who are able to go beyond the few pages of the text. For these there are other text-books ('supplementary readers,' reference books, and the like), and there may be as many as six or eight different authors on the subject in the school libraries [1]; the cleverer pupils are expected to

[1] This is, at any rate, the case at Washington. In other places, such as Worcester, Minneapolis, and Peoria, the public library sends to the schools every fortnight or so books bearing directly on the work.

treat the subject on broader lines. By this method the average work is got from each pupil in each subject, and opportunity is afforded to those capable of going beyond the average to work along the lines of their own individual taste and ability. Much valuable individualising can be done by the resource of the teacher in assigning work. And some safeguard is provided against pupils obtaining praise for good work at too cheap a rate, as is the case when alertness, combined with some little industry, and in some cases even without it, gives seemingly valuable results, which are found to be really empty when judgment and reflection are looked for as well as memory.

Dr. C. McMurry, who is acknowledged to be one of the greatest authorities on primary teaching in America, says that one of his tests of a well-taught school is to introduce a topic, and ask a class if they have any questions to put. If the questions are soon exhausted, the presumption is that not enough is being done to draw out the learner by means of the lessons. It is becoming, according to Dr. McMurry, a very common plan in conducting a recitation for the subject to be first talked over, and then for the children to ask questions. 'Mental discipline and the acquisition of useful knowledge *have been* the two aims; we are drifting away from them towards the social aim and the creation of a definite attitude of mind towards the subject matter'—a statement which exemplifies the tendency to some exaggeration in the aim to teach the child rather than the lesson.

(*e*) Nature-study is one of the means which teachers use to discover and encourage the children's individual interests. Reading, for example, about birds or flowers or other natural objects, which have first been observed

and then talked about in school, is quite a different effort from the formal act of making out words and arriving at knowledge simply from the book. In the early stages the teachers aim to have thought before reading, rather than reading before thought. The child, it is believed, cannot read intelligently until he has that in his mind which gives a meaning to what he reads. In the third grade it is held to be quite time enough to introduce the book as the first means of obtaining knowledge of a subject. So much depends on this—and the difference is so great between an exercise which is the rendering of thought, and an exercise which consists in struggling to give the right sound to arbitrary symbols, that it is specially referred to in a circular issued to His Majesty's Inspectors in December 1897.[1]

[1] Circular 407. But could not more be done to make this and many other circulars to inspectors effective in the daily practice of the schools? If sufficient copies were sent simultaneously to the School Board Offices of the country, and to the corresponding managers of training colleges and voluntary schools, for each school and college principal to receive one, the influence of many of these enlightened suggestions would be immensely increased. In this one case, for example: 'Children should not usually be asked to read aloud until they have had sufficient time to master its general meaning by silent study. Until they have been allowed to do this, it is neither fair nor profitable, nor even reasonable, to expect them to read with "intelligence."' The writer has seen the reading of a class, almost of slum children, improve 30 or 40 per cent. in less than ten minutes by adopting this plan. The passage continues in a strain so eminently sympathetic with what is said in the text, that one is tempted to quote the remainder of the paragraph. 'It is a peculiar and marked defect of our common primary school practice to give the children so little at any time and in any subject to "get up" for themselves; they suffer from lack of what has been called "a little wholesome neglect"; the teacher too often tells or "elicits" all that they are expected to know. There is, therefore, too little intellectual activity, readiness, discursiveness, or originality, in some of the best of our schools; and, in consequence, there are too few signs in reading aloud [the criticism goes beyond the subject of reading, though the circular is only concerned with that subject] of the individuality of expression which we call "intelligence."'

The question with us is not, *Quis custodiet custodes?* But how is this

(*f*) Many instances of good method in geometry teaching were observed, bringing out individual effort and taking note of individual performance. This is due, in some measure, to the hold which the kindergarten principles have taken in America. The first steps in geometry are made to consist of a concrete study of the type forms, sphere, cube, and prism, with which kindergarten children become acquainted through the gifts. Miss Hornbrook, whose pamphlet on the teaching of mathematics has been quoted, has an excellent little book on 'Concrete Geometry' which combines observation and experiment with arithmetic and practical plane geometry. In the Washington high schools 350 originals ('riders') are set in the year to boys of from fifteen to sixteen; these problems are worked out by about 70 per cent. of the boys; and such as are mathematically inclined do even more than this. Dr. Lane explained that for much of this voluntary work the scholars are in a sense themselves finally responsible. 'If I ask a class to do ten problems at home, do I look through them all? No! I do not want to see their work on paper, I want to see that they have got the power. It saps and kills the power of the teacher to have to sit over some hundreds of papers a week. Only the man who has no resource, who, if he threw the papers into the basket, would have nothing to judge by, must read line by line. The home work is not to torture the child, to make him do something when he might be better employed at play; it is to test power and develop it; and a teacher can gauge its value by the pupil's ability to work on the same lines.'

higher guardianship, which lacks neither zeal nor insight, to be made effective throughout the schools of the land? It is on this point of, so to say, pedagogical organisation that America is far ahead.

(*g*) A class beginning algebra in a Cincinnati high school—the subject ought to have been begun at least two years before—was working on an expeditious plan, combining individual work with collective advantage. The thirteen different members in the section worked different examples on the blackboard simultaneously; two had done problems, eleven had worked examples in the addition, subtraction or multiplication of root quantities. Thirteen examples were worked, roughly speaking, in the time required for one; then each pupil ran rapidly through his or her own working, the rest following, and correcting if necessary.

(*h*) The lower grades furnish many proofs of the continuance of the kindergarten spirit and method. For example, in the first grade of a coloured school in Washington each child had his own numeral frame attached to the head of the desk: it consisted of a wire with two simple clamps fastening it to the edges of the desk, on which were strung four small balls, four cylinders, and four cubes; 'pictures of number' (cf. Sonnenschein's sheets) were made on the board; the children acquired the simple arithmetical processes by means of concrete illustrations. In working out 'twice four are eight,' for instance, they would be asked to come and 'write a story' on the blackboard, which meant drawing two little groups or rows of four houses (or other simple objects) in each, or might simply mean writing 'four pencils and four pencils are eight pencils.' The constant use of the concrete before the abstract helps to make the school work, as already said, part of each child's own experience. Ratios and fractions, by the actual comparison of magnitudes and the cutting and pasting of coloured papers representing definite ratios, are acquired almost from the first. The relation of magnitudes is held

to be less abstract than the manipulation of symbols, the 'sums' of ordinary arithmetic. This will explain why some of the sheets exhibited at Paris were described as 'Arithmetic, first grade,' which looked at first like exercises in free paper-cutting. As another kindergarten application, the teacher of a second grade called out about half a dozen children and said, 'Close your eyes and let's have some fun'; the children were given various geometrical solids of which to estimate the dimensions with eyes closed. This was done as follows: 'I have a square prism that is two by two by one'; 'I feel a two-inch cube.' 'Right,' said the teacher, 'go and put it on the board'; 'I have a prism three by one.' 'Take the ruler and see,' said the teacher; it was found to measure four by one. A boy who opened his eyes was 'not smart, not nearly so smart as the boy who has his eyes closed tight.'

(*j*) The constant use of the blackboard by the children counts for very much in developing individual ability, and is valuable for the physical activity with which it associates, according to the well-known Froebelian principle, the mental acquisitions of the child.

It is not necessary to illustrate further.[1] These

[1] To show how such illustrations might be multiplied, two are quoted here, the one from Ohio, the other from Illinois:

(1) 'I procure a small box (a chalk box is about the right size), and place it on my desk. I explain to my pupils that we will have a question box. They are at liberty to put questions into the box during the week. On Friday afternoon we dispense with the regular work and spend the time in answering and explaining the questions. I find that it creates an interest in looking up questions, as the pupils all try to see who can answer the most. I have each pupil keep a note-book, in which are written the most important questions and answers.'

(2) 'In one class of my school I have several pupils who have been in the same grade two years, together with pupils who are doing the

instances have been quoted to show ways in which the life of the school-room is brought into touch with individual interests and activities. True, there is a constantly expressed desire and tendency to make the classes smaller. Meantime, both by classification and teaching methods, the teachers and those who direct their labours are endeavouring to reach the child in the mass, and to build up a school life which shall be the best expression of the individual lives of the pupils.

The following is a summary of new methods in education by Mr. C. F. Carroll, superintendent of schools, Worcester, Mass.:

In an average school-room of forty-eight children, in a standard school system, will be found on an average 100

work for the first time. Consequently some can do the work assigned much more quickly than others. For those who prepare the lessons soonest I have arranged a "Question Grab Bag." It is made of bright-coloured cloth and hung up by a ribbon. It contains bits of information, questions to be answered, memory gems to be committed, lists of words to write, words to be defined, &c.

'I told the pupils that when they had prepared their lessons they might hold up one finger and I would allow them to pass to the Grab Bag. There they would find a slip of paper which would tell them what to do.'

(3) The use that is made of pictures by the children to illustrate their own compositions has been dealt with in the report on *Moral Education in American Schools*. Sometimes the child does original work with brush or pencil for the purpose. The compositions themselves always aim to be expressions of the child's own thought. Here one may quote the words of "an informal visitor" to several Manchester schools in November 1900. After giving verbatim a ridiculous essay on the "hen," by a boy who rows, cycles, plays football, and is interested in photography, and who may be presumed, therefore, to have a store of experiences and reflections, he remarks how 'inadequate the opportunity of communicating them in a disquisition upon the hen! One headmaster kindly permitted a class of boys and girls to write essays upon a subject which I named, and which gave them some opportunity of mentioning themselves and their prejudices. The result was a most refreshing variety, and in one case the essayist showed distinct indications of a sense of humour.'

supplementary books, in sets of from fifteen to twenty-five ; good literature of absorbing interest, replete with information in history, geography, literature, and the natural sciences. Moreover, each school-room is a sort of sub-station of the public library, through which device a score or more of books are kept on hand, and from time to time exchanged for reference and special use. If it be a primary room, there are, in amount, several cubic feet of material used as occupations for the younger children, to assist them in the better performance of their tasks. The curriculum includes the study of nature at first hand. The school library referred to above stimulates conversation and discussion as a necessary part of every exercise. As a result, the school is a social organism and the children and the teacher are very near together. The school-room is decorated with pictures furnished by the spontaneous interest of citizens organised into education societies. Things of beauty, casts, pictures, plants, are in sight and constantly form a part of the subject matter of study.

It is a favourite theory with the best thinkers in education that we shall eventually devote at least half of every school day to industrial training and to the training of the senses. Children who have learned to read, write, and cipher, are but poorly equipped either for citizenship or for the struggle for existence. The successful man, in whatever domain, has almost invariably come from the 'country' school. As a boy he had investigated on his own account a thousand situations in the natural world about him, while putting forth every ounce of energy in his body in performing the duties required of him on the farm and in the severe competition existing among country boys. This proved his salvation, for 'book learnin'' was but an incident in his natural education. But in the city school these conditions tending to develop responsibility and strength of body and will have practically disappeared. Wherefore, the new education provides for actual manual labour, and opportunity to observe and construct. Moreover, examinations for promotion, whether as a goad or as a bribe, are disappearing; and the 'course of study' is becoming a mere outline for harmonious co-operation.

The nearest English example of the spirit pervading the American schools is Edward Thring. His elastic temperament, his national consciousness — 'not for Uppingham, but for England'—his faith in education, his faith in the individual schoolboy, all mark him off as the nearest familiar illustration of the most vital principles in American teaching at the present time. Nowhere does Thring speak more from the heart, or more as one who is sure of his audience, than in his address to the teachers of Minnesota. From that one address the sentences are culled forming the headings to these chapters. Other words of his might equally well be quoted, bearing upon the subject matter of the present chapter, and indeed of the whole essay. 'Lives, not lessons are to be dealt with.' 'Common sense is called in, life is shown to be one piece, and the boy made to see that his lessons are as much himself as his dinner.' 'We have now arrived at the first article of the teacher's creed: "Work from the inside outwards." The subject of the teacher is the child.' 'A teacher is not an elaborate parrot-master, and the pupil's memory is not his sphere of work.' 'The most pitiful sight in the world is the slow good boy, laboriously kneading himself into stupidity, because he is good.' 'The school of the future will as soon think of being without books as without pictures.' 'Give God's great picture-book a chance. Put a tongue into every visible thing.' Here the child, and the individuality of the child, pictures and picture-study, nature and nature-study are made cardinal points of educational doctrine. America seemed to reassure Thring that he was not dreaming of impossibilities. Speaking to the teachers of Minnesota, he said, 'I have evidence from experience here of the truth of these

words'—that photography to the teacher is almost as great an invention as printing; and, 'again appealing to experience here,' he observed that 'lesson-rooms, and the surroundings of lessons, should by their beauty, or their fitness, as the case may be, give honour to lessons.'

It ought not perhaps to be forgotten that an educational tendency closely resembling that of Thring and of the average American educator of to-day existed in England in the seventeenth century and amongst the very section of the population which gave America its early colonists. 'The Reformed School' (1649), written by 'the worthy Puritan,' John Dury, is a succinct but forceful appeal in behalf of the advanced views which have been here expressed as to the functions of the principal, the continued training of teachers in practice, as to individuality as a fundamental principle of school organisation, and the use of pictures and a school museum as part of the subject-matter of study.

CHAPTER V

INDIVIDUALITY AND SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

'Athletes are not bred in pastry-cooks' shops, or free men in prisons.'

SOMEWHERE between the two extremes suggested in these words of Thring's, school discipline in every concrete case is found to lie. In the reaction from the prison standard there is sometimes a tendency to the opposite extreme. This tendency is to be traced in the practice of some few typical American schools and in the views of certain educational theorists, exponents of the new education. One such advocate[1] says: 'When natural methods are philosophically applied by the teacher, the child becomes interested in his work, and the school is converted into a house of pleasure. When, on the other hand, the child is taught by mechanical methods, his mental food is given to him in the most indigestible and unpalatable form, in consequence of which he takes no interest in his work, learning becomes a source of drudgery, and the school a house of bondage.' But, surely, there is a middle term between 'house of pleasure' and 'house of bondage.' So, in his description of the Cook County Normal (now the Chicago Normal) School, this author says: 'Colonel Parker does not aim to convert his students into storehouses of know-

[1] Dr. Rice, articles in the *Forum*, reprinted under the title of 'The Public School System of the United States,' pp. 23 and 211.

ledge. . . . Colonel Parker sends out into the world no full-grown trees, but only seedlings.' The gospel of liberty for child and teacher may be said to have its head-quarters in Colonel Parker, but here, again, is there not a middle term which more fitly describes young teachers leaving college for active work than either 'full-grown trees' or 'only seedlings'? The world will have its difficulties with both kinds; as Dr. Rice himself adds, 'In unfavourable soil the seedlings wither or are stunted in their growth.' Thring's word 'athlete' seems to suggest the golden mean both for school pupil and college student. An athlete is one who having trained himself to a certain capacity for strenuous effort is still training himself for further and more successful efforts of the same kind. He is always hoping to surpass himself. He is far more than a 'seedling,' but he would make little boast of having reached the limit of his powers and being a 'full-grown tree.'

The term athlete both in its ancient and in its modern significance suggests also the twofold idea of individual and collective prowess. Now, the American school aims distinctly at individuality, but it is an individuality tempered and enlarged by social conditions and social needs. Freedom without licence, movement without disorder, ease without idleness, represent the American standard of discipline. The chief effect of such a standard is the conservation of the energy of both teacher and pupils for the real school-tasks, which are study and useful occupation rather than formal moral drill. Children move freely from place to place, from their seats to the blackboard to work out a problem, or to a table or window-sill holding a dictionary or other book of reference. In one school even running was permitted, the response to the visitor's query being,

'Why should they not run if they want to; they run at their play, why not at their work'? In every way that is possible behaviour or discipline is looked upon as the pupil's affair rather than the teacher's. Just as in their practical teaching American educators have almost abandoned the theory of the omniscience of the teacher, and are quite willing to allow the child to know and to tell the class things which the teacher herself does not know,[1] so in the moral treatment of children there is a growing disbelief in the value of coercing a child even to make him what the adult from his point of view would call 'good.' A true teacher is afraid neither of a pupil's intelligence nor of his freedom.

Goodness is, presumably, either a process of growth or of manufacture. Dynamics, the laws of force, are in court in the latter case; but growth must be *from within*. The present superintendent of schools at St. Louis, so far back as 1870, when assistant superintendent under Dr. W. T. Harris in the same city, was approaching this view when he wrote in the school report of that year:

> An American system of education must tend to bear the broad stamp of our country's political views and institutions. . . . Like the air we breathe, like the water we drink, education is free to all, and it is as necessary to life as either. . . .
>
> Self-government, which is the basis of our political institutions, must needs be the basis also of the individual life.
>
> . . . Self-government, self-control, is not the gift of a lucky moment; it is a habit to be gained only as the result of a long and hard struggle with passions and desires, which for

[1] This is the very opposite attitude to that of shyness regarding what the class may know which teachers sometimes adopt.

a time will have their powerful sway over every human soul. . . .

The firm purpose to make the pupil morally self-sustaining, to raise him to self-control, must pervade education from beginning to end.

The same thought runs through the recent number (March 1900) of the 'New York Teachers' Monographs,' which was devoted to questions of class management. Mr. Hervey, of the Board of Examiners, New York City, wrote: 'The deepest thing in a child is the striving to be himself, his very self. We sometimes refer to this as self-activity, sometimes as individuality, *Wille zum Leben*, the "divine essence." Some have even called it total depravity. But by whatever name we call it, we mean that something within the child that makes him tend to become what he is, the active germ of the new "kind of man" he is destined to be. . . . The first and great commandment to the teacher, therefore, is: *Respect that in the child which impels him to live his own life in his own way.* . . . No teacher who holds to the maxim: "Respect every other will" can fail to welcome even stout opposition to his own views, provided only the opposition be honest and amenable to reason. . . . Few things in educational science are more clearly established than this: That if a teacher or a parent makes a child knuckle under to him, the child is in danger of forming the habit of knuckling under, or, what is worse, pretending to knuckle under, to any one and every one. . . . The function of the teacher, then, is not to break but to enlighten, not to stamp out but to spiritualise that power within the child that makes for selfhood.' Professor Seeley, of the State Normal School, Trenton, New Jersey, writes in the same monograph: 'I once knew a teacher who prided herself

on being able to hear a pin drop at any time of the day. Now I do not think she had good order. It was painful, repressive, and wholly needless. A certain amount of noise indicates work. . . . Every mother knows that too profound a stillness in the nursery is ominous.' These items enter into the definition of order given by this writer: Negatively, order does not mean absolute stillness; good order does not imply a formal position of the body; good order does not require the teacher to see every piece of innocent mischief. ('The teacher must not forget that her charge are children full of life and brimming with fun. This is the natural instinct of childhood, and every one delights to see it. Without this spirit the physical, mental, and moral powers would stagnate. Only it must not be allowed to go too far. . . . The teacher may allow liberty to her pupils, just so far as she can do so without feeling that they are running away with her.') Positively, 'good order in the schoolroom is attained when every pupil attends to his own work at the proper time without unnecessary noise, promptly and cheerfully obeys the wishes of the teacher, and, above all, exercises perfect self-control.' The last sentence sounds like a definition of good order which would be universally proposed and accepted. But, of course, what this writer has already said as to the hurtfulness of a discipline of repression lies behind his definition of good order. And the fact is that the consciousness of liberty to do all that it is right to do creates an atmosphere in which disorder does not thrive. To this one can bear testimony from actual observation. The school spirit not only aimed at but attained in the typical American and also Canadian school—indeed, it is from Inspector Hughes, of Toronto, that the phrase is borrowed—is one of a 'perfect law of

liberty.' As yet another writer in the 'Class Management Monograph' says: 'The only government worth while is self-government, and to attain this all educational measures—formative and reformative—should be directed.'[1] All this is excellent and goes very far towards making the class-room a place where the child's interests, the child's life, the child's work are uppermost. If those who act as though in much waste of nerve and muscular tissue consists the disciplinarian's wisdom would realise how willing children are to discipline themselves (else where do the 'appeal to numbers' and other commonplaces of the text-books come in?), and how much easier, as well as better for themselves, it is to allow them to do so, there would be a great replacing of noise and unnecessary harshness by quieter methods, such as would give the children more lead, and relieve the teacher of the necessity of driving. One is reminded of the remark of a teacher, who, by his familiarity with social work of various kinds, was specially well qualified to weigh up the influence of

[1] The following extract is quoted from an article on certain phases of life in a Manchester school: 'Mr. Bernard Shaw says that education is an "organised defence of the grown-up person against the young person." The system still largely in vogue of obtaining school essays lends some colour to the charge. It is not what the child thinks upon some matter that he is acquainted with that the teacher asks for, but too often what somebody else thinks and has written in a book. "Here is an atmosphere," one sometimes reflects in a schoolroom, "in which people say not what they think, but what they think they ought to think." It is painful to see and to hear a whole class of children answering a "leading" question as to their opinion upon some subject exactly as they perceive the teacher wishes them to answer it. "Do you like school, children?" asked a teacher in my presence. All hands went up. "What does that little boy say?" "Yes, teacher." "And that boy?" "Yes, teacher." "But what would you think," I asked the teacher, "if one boldly said 'No'?" "I should think it impudent," was the reply. Is it, then, one may ask, better to be servile than impudent? Are we afraid to know what the child thinks and feels?'—*Manchester Guardian*.

environment as a moral agency: 'This school is like a railway station!' Not mere noise, but a jangling and clashing of noises. Yet those teachers were not starting trains and transferring luggage, but only teaching young boys who came from good homes and knew something of what was meant by good behaviour.

Self-government is of two kinds, individual and social or collective; the former by self-direction and self-control, the latter by some system of delegation or representation. That the former is of the very essence of the American school spirit has been stated; not a little is being done in various ways to realise the latter. A device known as the 'school-city,' whereby the forms and titles of municipal government are transferred to the school as its model of pupil government, is to be found in several schools. With regard to this, however, after much sympathetic study of it, one is bound to think that the spirit of school-citizenship can be inculcated without a precocious officialdom. Organisations of various kinds, some initiated by teachers, others by the pupils themselves, also exist, and are universally encouraged.[1] The philosophy of the self-government towards which American school life is tending is admirably stated in a little book, which is already well known and widely read in this country, Professor John Dewey's 'School and Society':

> The obvious fact is that our social life has undergone a thorough and radical change. If our education is to have any meaning for life, it must pass through an equally complete transformation. This transformation . . . is already in progress. The introduction of active occupations, of nature study, of elementary science, of art, of history; the relegation

[1] These are described and the 'school-city' device discussed at length in the writer's *Report on Moral Education in American Schools.*

of the merely symbolic and formal to a secondary position; the change in the moral school-atmosphere, in the relation of pupils and teachers—of discipline; the introduction of more active, expressive, and self-directing factors—all these are not mere accidents, they are necessities of the larger social evolution. It remains but to organise all these factors, to appreciate them in their fulness of meaning, and to put the ideas and ideals involved in complete, uncompromising possession of our school system. To do this means to make each one of our schools an embryonic community life, active with types of occupations that reflect the life of the larger society, and permeated throughout with the spirit of art, history, and science.[1]

Taking discipline in the broader sense of an adequate all round moral training, one doubt, however, arises in the mind of the student of American school life. It is based upon the tendency indicated at the commencement of the chapter to rely upon pleasant tasks as a sufficient moral and intellectual stimulus. Some very wise words bearing upon this point were contained in a reply to questions on the development of the individuality of pupils received from Mr. W. F. Slaton, superintendent of schools, Atlanta, Georgia:

> The general introduction into our schools of object teaching and nature study has gone far towards developing the entity of each individual. The economy of these means, as well as the richness of the results, have often been suggested to my mind in my rounds of visits, when, in the space of a few minutes, the teacher would have drawn out fresh thought from very many young minds.
>
> The taste of the child, his native impulses or propensions, but not his character in full were brought out in this way. Heredity, environment, and many other conditions play an important part here. Things that the perception of the teacher and the devices of the superintendent could not compass.

[1] *School and Society*, pp. 43–4.

In other words, something more than the aesthetic and brightening appeal of the 'new education' as embodied in courses of study is necessary for the development and training of character. The whole point of the query really lies in the distinction which Mr. Slaton draws between 'the taste of the child, his native impulses or propensions,' and his 'character in full.' The new education counts amongst its main moral features the beauty loving and the free. Good as these features are, they do not answer to the demands of a complete moral training? Is even a guided pursuit by the child of his 'taste, his native impulses or propensions' to be looked upon as a sufficient exercise and training of the will? Without advocating anything of the nature of repressive discipline, one feels that the American school would strengthen itself if its curriculum included slightly more that would appeal to the child as a task. Miss Jane Addams, of the Hull House Settlement, Chicago, one of the great forces for good in the life of that city, is reported to have said: 'It is precisely on the undeveloped morality of voters that municipal corruption flourishes. Theirs is largely the crime of ignorance of what morality is.' The argument which Locke makes use of against the rod as an agent of discipline, that it is merely an appeal to the child's pleasure-loving, pain-avoiding instincts, is even more potent as opposed to a too general permitting of the child to do what he pleases under the name of respecting his individuality. In good sooth, the child has a bigger individuality than that. American education would seem to be in some danger even in its primary stages, and without much doubt in the grammar grades of many cities, of doing too little to develope the fibre and sinew which only come by wrestling. It

would almost seem natural, following out Locke's idea, that, as Miss Addams suggests, the corrupt alderman who gives turkeys, flowers, wedding gifts, and employment should appear a big-hearted friend and good man to those whose education has appealed almost solely to their pleasure-loving capacities.[1]

[1] Dr. Jebb, in the Romanes Lecture for 1899 on 'Humanism in Education' (p. 17), referring to the appointment of Vittorino da Feltre as tutor in the family of Gonzaga, Marquis of Mantua, says: 'A villa was assigned to him at Mantua, where he was to reside with his pupils. . . . The villa was known as the "House of Pleasure" ("La Gioiosa"); Vittorino, by a slight but meaning change, named it the "Pleasant House" ("La Giocosa"). . . . But he was a thorough believer in bright surroundings as conducive to mental and moral health.'

CHAPTER VI

INDIVIDUALITY OF THE TEACHER

Your Institutes, with their annual gatherings, appear to me the wisest beginning of true work that it is possible to devise.'

NOTHING seems to have struck Sir Joshua Fitch more on the occasion of his visit to the United States than the Teachers' Institutes, of which Thring spoke in addressing the teachers of Minnesota, using the words quoted at the heading of this chapter. They are the crest of the wave of onward labour which is slowly but surely improving the whole of the teaching work of America. The teachers are, by what has become a national habit, constant learners—students, often by various methods of voluntary association, of academic subjects such as nature knowledge, literature, philosophy ; students, too, of education, by dint of superintendents and supervisors who are their appointed instructors, of voluntary attendance upon educational courses, and of the teachers' institutes which are a sort of annual pedagogical confirmation of those already professing the faith.

American teachers in this way are always more or less in training. The normal school and normal college open the minds of their students to the large and wide-reaching possibilities of the profession upon which they are entering. But were this all, one would be forced to

ask: What is the synonym for a man or woman who was 'trained,' and whose training, by hypothesis, stopped short twenty or thirty years ago? And if a student should attend a few lectures or no lectures and obtain a 'diploma,' how far ahead into the future teaching life would such qualification reach, if the chief intent of the training course, or lectures, or reading, as the case may be, is not to stimulate the interest, and to create a desire to go into the actual problems of education more deeply after one's life work has commenced? As the report of the committee on rural schools has told us, there are many acting as teachers who have had no normal school training. For these the institutes avail somewhat, and also the enormous educational press providing reading courses, illustrated articles on pedagogical topics, news of new movements, reports of important speeches and addresses. President Thwing, of Western Reserve University, writing in the 'Forum,' says: 'Education has come to be recognised as one of the elemental and fundamental forces of life. It has always been an elemental and fundamental force, but it has not always been recognised as such. . . . In no department of life has there been a larger increase of enthusiasm, or an adoption of wiser methods.' One of the watchwords of the Quincy movement was that every teacher should become free through self-effort. The new movement in education, as part of its expressed aim, relies more upon the personality of the teacher than upon any other force brought to bear upon the child. The child is to be more than the lesson in the teacher's eyes, the teacher is to be more than the lesson to the child. The lesson is that which is given and taken, but the interplay of personality includes this giving and taking and much beside.

The topics of the present chapter fall naturally under the three headings: The individuality of the teacher; The continuous training of the teacher; The selection and classification of teachers.

The Individuality of the Teacher.

The superintendent of Worcester, Massachusetts, writes:

> The approved teacher of the present hour is a woman of gentle spirit and cheerful manner. The atmosphere of her school resembles that of a good home. There is great freedom among the pupils themselves. They move about without asking permission. They attend strictly to their own business, are industrious, and always at work when not reciting. This is not an exaggerated picture, though the average citizen who has not visited schools is quite ignorant of the real conditions under which his children are happily placed.

What is not clearly seen upon the surface is that this power to grant liberty to the children implies a large instinct of liberty and a healthily developed personality in the teacher. It takes as large an individuality to efface oneself in guiding the wills of others into rightful freedom as to protrude oneself upon the attention, and, for the time being, to absorb the wills of others. Dr. Wight, principal of the Wadleigh High School (part of the public school system), New York, spoke of the feeling of liberty pervading the organisation of the schools of the capital city of the empire state. The principals are granted a very free hand by the superintending experts, inasmuch as if the principal is fit for his place he ought to know more about that special work than any one else; the principals in turn allow and encourage individuality in the teachers—'the best

that is in the teacher is a certain originality ;[1] every one is in a greater or less degree a possible specialist on her own lines.' Similarly, the principal of the girls' department of Public School No. 1, situated in a very poor district of New York (in a class taken at haphazard, out of 45 children, 1 was American-born of American parents, 14 were American-born of foreign parents, 30 were foreign-born), said : 'We desire personality rather than the work of the "artisan" teacher. If we can have teachers of liberal culture, tact, and sympathy with children, the rest will come with experience. I have such regard for the individual soul, that I should not wish any one to do anything just because I wanted it. We have thirty-five teachers ; they are individually about as different as thirty-five women need be.' It is, of course, possible to ask whether this constant reference to the individuality of the teacher, which greets one everywhere, is due to the peculiar conditions obtaining in America—the mixed nationalities, the meeting of millionaire's children and the children of washerwomen in the same classes, the insistent democracy pervading all. Does the principle apply in a country of more settled population, and more rigid lines of social cleavage? The answer to this belongs to the next chapter ; it is a more fundamental matter than a consideration of school constituency and environment. Holding, on the one hand, to the sacredness of the individuality of the teacher, we look beyond it to the natural outcome of the teacher's free and highly developed personality,

[1] So Bishop Spalding, in an address at the Convocation of the University of Chicago, October 2, 1899, on 'The University and the Teacher,' says : 'Let him be free, let him be trusted. To make him the slave of minute observances, the victim of a system of bureaucratic regulations, is to render it impossible that he should find joy and delight in his work . . . is to make him unfit to mould and inspire freemen.'

namely, individuality in the child. Where, as in the case of Elwood, Indiana, reported upon by Miss Small, supervisor of grades, most of the teachers are 'graduates of some college or training school (usually the Indiana State Normal School), and the others are students of similar institutions, so that there are no entirely untrained teachers,' one can see the wisdom of their being 'encouraged to work out their own ideas though they must be guided by the "Course of Study," in order that there may be unity throughout the city. To give them time for planning lessons, they are relieved as far as possible of the irksome and mechanical work of keeping records and making reports. The record-sheets have blanks for a half-year (four and one-half months). On these appear the name, age, attendance, and punctuality of the pupil. The only "Report to Parents" is the annual report at the end of the year; although in cases of a child falling behind in the school work, and likely to fail of promotion, the parents are generally informed.' These last sentences are quoted largely because one might easily refer to conditions where the strain upon the teacher is too great. If a teacher is to be fresh and inspiring, and keep within the limits of their right development the liberties of, at least, forty children for five hours a day, that should suffice as a tax upon one woman's strength. A due amount of preparation there must be, but for teachers to be working in the classrooms for from one to two hours before the commencement of morning school, as was observed in one city, is to give but a poor opportunity to the teacher to be original from 11 to 12 A.M., or 3 to 4 P.M. The letter from Elwood also goes to show that the tendency in the average normal school is towards the creation of individual thought.

Literature being the all-essential part of the school course, one of the ways in which liberty is claimed for the teacher in the direction of her own class work is in the choice of the literature which shall be read by her pupils. Many city boards have a long list of books suitable for supplementary reading in the different grades, affording a wide range of choice. A printed course of literary study is regarded as valuable as a suggestion of possibilities, and as showing phases of the beautiful and the true in which young minds have been found to delight, but this is not held as to justify their being imposed upon other teachers. 'Here,' writes Mrs. Ella F. Young, of Chicago University, late district superintendent of schools in that city, 'may we have a living, vitalising force, originating in the free play of the power of selection by the teacher. . . . Running through every literary production is some one of the fundamental principles underlying the higher life, and this principle woven into the warp and woof of the narration, the novel, the poem, the myth, the drama, suggests to the reader something farther and higher reaching than the soul itself has yet attained. In all this there is an appeal to the nobler self. It makes that self realise its personal, its individual responsibilities. By putting a prescribed course into the hands of the teacher, this permanent element, the arousing the sense of responsibility through a selecting activity, is ignored.'

The period during which this tendency to regard the teacher's personality as the paramount force in organised education has been making itself felt is the oft-quoted 'twenty-five years,' which is commonly recognised as an era of revival or 'renascence' in education. Great things have happened in England within the period; some outside observers have said greater than in any other

country of the world. Glad as one is to welcome such testimony, it is doubtful whether the lines of progress are so definitely marked, and the note of nationality is so unmistakable (unless it be in the intensity of the plea for commercial and technical training) as in the American movement. In one word, it is a profoundly 'humane' spirit which has taken possession of American educational practice. Under Horace Mann, Pestalozzi's was the first voice from outside to make itself heard throughout America. Then came the remarkable and ever-increasing welcome given in turn by philanthropists, educators, and leading thinkers to the Froebelian principles of education and to the kindergarten as the expression of those principles. One of W. H. Payne's essays in his 'Contributions to the Science of Education' is on 'The Teacher as a Philanthropist,'[1] in which he instances Pestalozzi, Foebel, and Rousseau. He dwells especially upon the famous passage in the 'Emile,' 'O men, be humane; it is your foremost duty. . . . Love childhood; encourage its sports, its pleasures, its lovable instincts.' 'The "Emile,"' says Professor Payne, in the introduction to his translation of it, 'has made the ministry of the schoolroom as sacred as the ministry of the altar; and by unfolding the mysteries of his art and disclosing the secret of his power, it has made the teacher's office one of honour and respect.' America has absorbed the mind and spirit of these three men—Pestalozzi, the apostle of the teacher's personality; Froebel, of the child's activity in learning; Rousseau of the humane impulse which widens the meaning of the word democracy until it almost ceases to be a term of politics

[1] *Some Contributions to the Science of Education*, by W. H. Payne, Chancellor of the University of Nashville and President of the Peabody Normal College.

and stands for the '*Nihil humani a me alienum puto*' of the ancient Roman. This includes the child, includes the study of the 'function of Saxon, Celt, German, Gaul, Scandinavian and Slav in the social organism,' includes a 'non-parochial standard of patriotism,' a point in respect of which America, like all other nations, has room for enlargement of spirit and outlook.

The moral demand upon the teacher is to be measured by the greatness of the times. America, as stated in the 'Anglo-American Magazine' for July, 1899, in an article on 'The War's Legacy to the American Teacher,' is shaking off the awkwardness of youth, and rising to take up the obligations of national manhood. 'No amount of mechanical expertness,' says the writer of the article, 'or nicety of inference, however valuable, can compensate for inability to marshal in order and draw conclusions from the political and sociological data of the newspaper and the magazine. The genesis of such a science in education is found in the classes in "current events" now flourishing in many schools.' He adds that 'no other generation of teachers has been presented with like opportunities for original work.' It is in response to these conditions that one can meet with superintendents whose 'hobby,' as one expressed it, is to give scope to the individuality of their principals and teachers; not that they do not think there is need for central organisation, but that they think this organisation should be 'so general that the teacher can breathe the breath of life into it.' One of the most strikingly successful of the public schools that were visited is the Forestville School, at Chicago. Here the principal knows her own mind, and the aim of her school grade by grade; literature is the corner stone of the school course, but other subjects do not suffer. When criticised

by outsiders, and told that she was having stories and poetry taught instead of the three R's, she said, 'This year I give twenty minutes a day to literature, next year I shall give an hour. This year I give one hour a day to arithmetic, next year I shall give half an hour.' But this lady is no martinet in her own school. Teachers and children are expected to be as free and original as consorts with the general school life and aim. The principal does not tell the teachers how to do their work; they have weekly teachers' meetings, more to catch and keep in touch with the spirit of the school organisation than to have lines laid down for the teacher's procedure in the grade. The school unity is a product of the three factors, 'growth, harmony, individuality.' This school spirit, to anticipate the subject of the next chapter, inevitably reaches to the child; the teacher no longer wants the children in her class to be her echo. Eighth grade children in this school were evidently interested in the individual touches in each other's reading, as when one boy read the speech of Polonius in 'Hamlet' in a way which gave his personal interpretation of one line in it. A discussion followed as to what the play was intended to teach. One thought that the story itself did not teach anything, nor the characters, but only the speeches that are introduced by the way. Another said, 'It seems to me such a terribly sad thing that the play does not have any real outcome. It is just a study of Hamlet without any outcome to oneself.' Such contributors of personal opinion were not disconcerted by the teacher's cross-examination of their views. 'No, I know,' said one, 'but' &c. The changing of classes is very much like a very brief interval during a concert. The children are encouraged to speak to each other freely in these short intervals, and in the corridors as

they pass from room to room, 'to behave as men and women would, and speak to their friends or make any needful inquiries during the change of classes.' One visitor criticised this plan; as compared with her method of marching the children from room to room it appeared disorderly. During the day the visitor said with surprise to one of the teachers, 'However do you get so much work out of your children?' The teacher answered, 'By letting them have physical freedom. You do not know the expenditure of energy amounting to sheer waste in "behaving."' There is no rigid attitude in the classroom. The children are encouraged out of constrained positions and told 'just to sit comfortably.' Whilst admitting that it is a hard thing for a principal to possess freedom herself and to grant freedom of origination to others, Mrs. Young, who as former district superintendent knew the inner life of the school thoroughly, spoke of the unwillingness of the stronger teachers to leave it.

Habit naturally counts for a great deal. Teachers who have been accustomed to a rigid system of prescription are almost alarmed at first when told that they may use their own judgment, but they enjoy the change before long. One superintendent in particular has been engaged during the last two years in changing the spirit of the schools and teachers from one of routine to one of initiative. Already he has the satisfaction of seeing a certain independence of interpretation on the part of the teachers in doing what, according to the letter of the regulations, are the same things. Time is saved and interest is awakened by such efforts to make teachers independent in their work. They feel that the work is their own, and that they can go forward with it in the way which is best adapted to their own powers without waiting for the next orders from headquarters.

The superintendent of Detroit says in his report for 1889:

Though many grade meetings for the several grades and classes have been held under the direct guidance of the superintendent, no direction except in the way of interpretation has been given that has not been subject to conditions existing in the different districts.

The direct aim has been an attempt to stamp the individuality of principals and teachers upon their school work, to unfetter their minds, to encourage teachers in finding and working out school problems in their own way, to have their aims and ends reflected through the acts and work of the pupils. The teacher who is untrammeled by petty regulations develops in her pupils the capacity for independent and thorough execution. If our efforts have been successful, even in a measure, we may bespeak a more useful future for many thousands of children.

Individuality is evidently not intended to be a thing to be scrambled for, according to the oft-repeated theory —much too good, by the way, not to be true so far as it goes—of sending a boy to school to fight his own way and find his footing; but an accepted principle, which is to be so provided for that it shall be brought within the reach of all. The same thought underlies the report of the superintendent of Dayton, Ohio, for the same year. Comparing his ideals of school life and organisation with those based on arbitrary criteria lying outside of the child and confined to certain technical considerations of the subjects of instruction, Dr. Hailmann says:

Rational methods of procedure, while demanding equally satisfactory progress in matters of instruction, place the stress of attention upon considerations of development of power on the part of the child. These considerations are not subject to arbitrary rules and involve constant appeals to the teacher's independent judgment. They imply, therefore, much greater

freedom, as well as much greater responsibility on the part of the teacher. It is intensely gratifying to me to be able to report that both principals and teachers, as a whole, have gone through the ordeal of the first year in this transition with devotion and patient confidence in ultimate success.

Still more am I gratified to be able to report that, in every instance, I have begun to observe the natural reaction both upon teachers and pupils, which follows necessarily the teacher's triumph in these matters. This is evident in the spirit of earnestness and cheerfulness, of mutual respect and kindliness that pervades the schoolroom. Rules and moralisings are reduced to a minimum where both teacher and pupil simply grow in the right direction.

Simply to indicate a few of the essential points which are involved, these are: Increased respect for childhood and for each individual child; consequent constant study of both of these in environment and in disposition; thoughtful adjustment of the child's surroundings at school in order to connect the child's school interests with ideal personal experiences; the stimulation of spontaneous purpose with reference to everything that is taught; the establishment of a benevolent attitude on the part of the child by furnishing him opportunities for the beneficent use of what he may learn; the nurture of a spirit of research, leading both to discovery and invention on the child's part; the avoidance of artificial incentives; the substitution of encouragement for compulsion; the constant subordination of the course of study to the needs of the child; and unceasing effort to find for to-morrow a better way.

A representative of the German Government who attended the Columbian Exposition of 1893 for the purpose of studying American education said that there were three things in American education that profoundly impressed him: (1) The liberty which the teachers have to try new experiments; (2) the working libraries to be found in most of the schools; and (3) the superior discipline. To the third point reference will be made later. It is the first point which is of special interest here.

The constant study and training of the teachers go hand in hand with their liberty to try experiments for themselves upon the lines of their research. The whole educational world seems tolerant of fresh ideas, indeed, is on the look out for them. Not that the American who tries and *fails* comes off any better than elsewhere; but, at any rate, he has a better chance to try. In an article on the principal's part in maintaining class discipline,[1] the negative aspect of the principal's relation to class discipline is spoken of as being the recognition of the teacher's individuality. Upon this the well-being of the 'vital elements of the school, the classes,' depends. 'Method is the manifestation of personality,' and as such it cannot be imposed from above. The familiar plea is urged that the teacher's individuality is the chief of the school influences that are brought to bear upon the child. 'One teacher's personality may cause a chord to vibrate in the pupil's nature, whose harmony will be an everlasting source of delight.' If there could be a uniform method in a school, only a small per cent. of the pupils might be reached in this way; the multiplying of personalities and corresponding methods increases *pro tanto* the chances that each child will be reached and vitally influenced.

The Continuous Training of the Teacher.

These new demands upon the teacher call for some means of keeping in constant touch with the best educational thought and experience of the time, especially when in school matters the time itself is so full of new movements and new meanings. Hence the meetings of

[1] *New York Teachers' Monographs*, edited by Sidney Fuerst, Class Management Number, March 1900.

principal and teachers, weekly, fortnightly, or at other intervals, to discuss problems of class teaching and school management; the meetings of superintendents with principals; the grade, sectional, and occasional mass meetings of teachers with the superintendents and supervisors; and the institutes lasting a day, a week, and sometimes more; merging into the summer schools which are of several weeks' duration, and which are a growing force from year to year, not only in bringing expert educational influences, but also university life and thought, to bear upon practical school questions. The assembly of the Cuban teachers at Harvard in the summer of 1900 is but one illustration of this general movement.

The report of the committee on rural schools refers to the principal ways in which advanced educational theory is being brought within the reach of American teachers even in country districts:

(1) The summer schools, excepting in those cases in which they are used as a means to passing examinations for certain certificates, when there is a danger of cramming for the examinations, and 'so far they cease to be educative in any proper sense of the term.'

These schools have multiplied in number and enlarged in scope throughout the land, and have proved of great advantage to thousands, not only by increasing their knowledge, but also and much more by bringing them under the personal influence of leaders of thought and masters in teaching.

Papers based upon the books read should be written and carefully examined, and the results attained should in some way be passed to the teacher's credit; thus, for a certain number of certificates indicating the completion of a course, a diploma may be granted.

The plan of organisation is perhaps best formed by the teachers of the State acting through their associations, and the

courses of reading can best be made out by committees chosen by the teachers for this purpose.

(2) The normal 'institutes,' which are especially common in the West.

County institutes of one week or more, held during the school year, may exert a great influence in the improvement of teachers. When they are conducted under efficient supervision, with a body of instructors capable of increasing the range of thought of teachers, and are organised under such laws as will secure the attendance of the teachers of the county, they prove a powerful means of educational advance.

In some western States the teachers are bound by law to attend the institutes. The high percentage of attendance upon the county institutes of Pennsylvania is quoted below. Institutes lasting a single day naturally have less influence, and in order to secure the best results should, in the judgment of the committee, be held at intervals so frequent that the effect may be continuous.[1]

[1] The programme of a Teachers' Institute of this kind held at Ware, in the county of Hampshire, Massachusetts, on April 27, 1900, was as follows:

9.15 A.M.	Opening Exercises.	
9.30 ,,	Illustrated Lecture: 'A trip to Alaska and the Aleutian Islands'	Benjamin K. Emerson, Professor of Geology, Amherst College.
10.30 ,,	Geography (Primary Section) .	Mrs. Mary R. Davis, Springfield.
10.30 ,,	Nature Study and Decorative Design (Grammar Section) . .	Henry T. Bailey, Agent of the Board.
10.30 ,,	Mathematics (High School Section)	James W. MacDonald, Agent of the Board.
11.30 ,,	Language (Primary Section) .	Mrs. Davis.
11.30 ,,	Arithmetic (Grammar Section) .	G. T. Fletcher, Agent of the Board.

Amongst the topics discussed at the teachers' institutes in Massachusetts in 1898 (of which twenty-two were for a single day, and two for five and six days respectively) were (to take those at the end of the alphabetical list): Reading, Reading and Language, Reading and Literature, Reading and Phonetics with class exercise, Singing in the Ungraded Schools, Some Axioms of Good Teaching, Some Primary Methods, Stories for Children, Story Telling, The Art of Questioning, The Desirable and the Needful in a Teacher, The Development Method, The Elements of True Teaching, The Formation of Good Habits as an Aim in Teaching, The Gist of Good Teaching, The Human Body, The Kindergarten Bridge, The Mutual Relations of Educational Forces, The Relations of Teacher and Pupils, The

11.30 A.M.		Latin (High School Section) .	Mr. MacDonald.
12.30 P.M.		Coffee will be served free in the high school building to teachers bringing lunch.	
2.0	,,	Scientific Training of the Voice .	Richard Wood Cone, Boston.
3.0	,,	Artistic Results in Nature Study (Primary Section) . . .	Mr. Bailey.
3.0	,,	The Recitation (Grammar Section)	Charles S. Chapin, Principal, State Normal School, Westfield.
3.0	,,	Simple Apparatus in Physics and Chemistry Teaching (High School Section)	Charles B. Wilson, State Normal School, Westfield.

Teachers are requested to be prompt in attendance and to bring this programme.

Citizens of Ware are cordially invited to attend the Institute.

FRANK A. HILL,
Secretary of the Board.

G. T. FLETCHER,
Agent of the Board.

Teachers generally respond loyally to these arrangements, it being a point of honour with them to attend when the schools are closed for the day to permit of their so doing.

Unseen Force in Character Building, Vertical Writing, Voice Culture. Evening addresses were given on 'What is Education?' 'The Value of Art in Everyday Life,' 'Teachers for the Times,' 'Conditions Necessary for the Maintenance of Good Schools;' and general day addresses on 'Apperception,' 'Literature for Children,' 'The Pedagogical Problem,' 'The Relation of Modern Education to the Problems of Philanthropy,' and a course of lectures on pedagogy.

To cite one other example, a brief description of the institutes for the rural districts of Pennsylvania was included as an appendix in the report of the committee on rural schools:

Every county holds an institute annually for a week. Towns, cities, and boroughs hold separate ones for a day or two, or for a week. The course of instruction and the corps of instructors in county institutes are entirely determined by the county superintendent, who is always an experienced teacher.

The considerations that secure attendance are: (1) Continuance of salary for the week, if the time be spent at the institute; (2) closing the schools by law during the institute week; (3) the knowledge that the county superintendent will discriminate against teachers not in attendance, and that directors will do likewise; (4) an institute programme that attracts, that wins outsiders interested in education.

Only sickness keeps teachers away as a rule. It is unusual for more than one in a hundred to be absent. Often every teacher is present. The effect of the institutes upon the schools is most potent. The professional spirit of the teachers is intensified, the quality of the teaching is improved, and the interest of the public in education is aroused. It is a great revival period, covering the state, the audiences being limited generally by the capacity of the largest halls available.

Local institutes are held at different dates in different sections of almost every county, conducted by the teachers of

the neighbourhood, and are attended by teachers and pupils from adjoining sections. There is generally but one local institute a year in each section. It continues for one day. The subjects all relate to work in rural schools.

(3) The third way of reaching the teachers mentioned in the report on rural schools is by means of reading circles. On this point, the importance of which has been established by the success of the Chautauqua movement and of other organisations for home study and of teachers' reading circles, the committee says :

The problem is apparently not a difficult one in the larger places, with systems of schools, where numbers of members are readily brought together, but it is quite different in the case of rural schools. The results reported clearly indicate certain elements essential to success. To secure the advantage of organisation there must be a central board of control. This may be a State board with auxiliary boards in counties and towns. Not only are books for reading to be selected, but a plan of work should be carefully drawn up and widely circulated among teachers.

By means of written papers, the results of which are in some way passed to the teacher's credit, such as the granting of a diploma for a certain number of certificates ; by allowing to committees of the teachers themselves a voice in the selection of books to be read ; by correspondence through a bureau in connection with the State department of education, and by the use of circulating libraries, these circles are capable of being a great help to acting teachers.[1]

[1] For illustrations of the way in which reading courses are conducted and State school libraries organised, see Appendix C (1) and (2). The English National Home Reading Union has a department in some ways similar to the work here spoken of.

The Selection and Classification of Teachers.

Some of the points mentioned have much to do with the race question in the choice of teachers. No wiser decision could have been come to than to give the best training which the conditions allow to Cuban teachers that they may carry on their own schools, rather than to appoint American teachers whom the salaries offered are quite sufficient to attract. The important principle involved, says Mr. J. H. Phillips, of Birmingham, Alabama, pleading for negro teachers for negro schools,[1] is primarily that of co-ordination—not of text-books and curricula—but the vital co-ordination of the teacher with the child.

The fact that the vast majority of negro teachers are deplorably incompetent no one will deny. But the remedy is to be sought in the improvement of these teachers, and not in the substitution of white teachers. Novel as the statement may appear, I confidently hold that no white teacher is competent to teach negro children. We must remember that for the teacher there are conditions and qualifications antecedent to scholarship, and tests more important than the uniform State examination.

Let me briefly summarise the argument for employing negro teachers in negro schools:

1. The educational development of the negro must be from within, and by the race itself, and not solely through extraneous agencies.

2. The intellectual and moral dependence of the race should not be perpetuated. The negro needs to be stimulated to independent activity.

[1] This principle is so far admitted that in every coloured school the writer visited, whether in Washington or Indianapolis, the teachers belonged to the same race as the children. The same thing was observed where a district is peopled almost entirely by, say, a German population.

3. As a teacher of his race the negro occupies a position of trust and honour, which he needs to quicken his sense of responsibility and to furnish him the incentives and the means for race elevation.

4. The teacher and the pupil must possess a common consciousness, whose historic processes have common elements, resulting in common intuitions. The teacher must embody in his character the race epochs and processes represented in the child.

5. The instinct of race identity renders impossible the realisation of an ideal relation between the white teacher and the negro pupil. The teacher and the child must be co-ordinated.

Is it in any degree a legitimate extension of this same principle which would find a possible source of weakness in American education in the disproportionate number of women teachers? Seven per cent. of men to ninety-three per cent. of women represent the proportion for the whole of the cities of the United States. In the country districts there are for many reasons more men, the proportion being thereby raised to 32 per cent. In one city in the whole of the fifty-nine elementary schools there was not one male principal or teacher. In Washington, which has some exceptionally well-equipped high schools, out of 900 teachers, eight-ninths are women. There seems to be some force in the suggestion of the president of Girard College, Philadelphia, that children need to have before them during at least some part of their school course teachers to whom they can look up as a sort of unconscious ideal, expressing the goal of their own personal development, and, as he tersely phrased it, 'the boys are not going to be women.' The response of a bright woman-librarian, when the remark was quoted to her, was 'No! but if they are not trained towards their ideal, they are trained in

chivalry.' The actual trend of things is the best arbiter of the matter. In Philadelphia, as already stated,[1] a resolution has been passed by the Board of Education not to appoint in future any but men to the principalship of mixed schools; and one recommendation in the report of the Chicago educational commission, 1898, was 'that all suitable means be used to put a larger proportion of men teachers in the higher grades of the elementary schools as positions therein may hereafter become vacant; and, if it be found necessary to the securing of this end, that higher salaries be provided for men than for women in these grades.' In stating the case for Chicago in particular, though the need for more men in public school work was referred to as being universally recognised, the commissioners said, 'The small number of boys in our secondary schools, as compared, for example, with Boston, is a striking and almost ominous fact, which is to be attributed in part to the predominance of women teachers in the elementary schools. Indeed, the proportion of boys to girls in our high schools is actually decreasing.' Yet at Boston one of the perplexities of the superintendent, as stated in his 1899 report, is the number of women graduates from the normal school who are waiting for appointments, and for whom vacancies cannot be found.

There is a phase of the internal organisation of the school and its courses of study which has, during the last year or two, been receiving a considerable amount of attention, namely, the employment of subject-teachers rather than grade-teachers in certain portions of the elementary school, in addition to the teachers of such special or quasi-extra subjects as music, drawing, manual training, and elementary science. Opinions are so

[1] In footnote, p. 43.

contrary respecting the experiment that, in summing up the results of an inquiry into the matter, Mr. J. T. Prince, State Agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education,[1] only recommends it subject to these specific limitations: that it should be confined to the middle and higher grades; that each room should be in charge of one teacher, who should teach in it at least three-fifths of the school time; that outside of her own room each teacher should take only one subject (or at most two that are closely correlated); that there should be frequent consultations of teachers in order to keep the work well balanced and co-ordinated. According to the reports of superintendents, almost wholly belonging to Massachusetts, the mother of so many reforms, the plan is found in practice to have all the drawbacks as well as the advantages which are familiar to educational experts. The chief drawbacks of the method may be stated in the words of three of the Massachusetts superintendents: 'If knowledge were the end of education, the departmental plan might be used; but, as character is the one end and aim of our work, the departmental plan has no place in our teaching.' 'We are likely to have more departmental work in our grammar schools' [i.e. upper grades of the elementary school], 'but I question whether its advantages will offset the opportunity for that fine correlation of studies that obtains in the system of class instruction.' 'Detrimental in the extreme; undermining the personal influence of the teacher, which is the greatest possible factor in the moral education of the child.' Amongst favourable opinions is one from Brooklyn, New York, the only report received from an outside city, where the plan had been in operation four

[1] *Second Report upon a Course of Studies for Elementary Schools*, 1898.

years in about one-fifth of the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades: 'The special teachers become better acquainted with peculiarities of individual scholars' [probably, intellectual rather than moral peculiarities are meant], 'become better acquainted with subject-matter and method. Weak teachers may be assigned to relatively unimportant studies. On the boys' side strong disciplinarians are needed to make the system successful.' Other reports say: 'A great gain in scholarship.' 'Better preparation on the part of teachers, more enthusiasm among pupils, and more systematic instruction.' 'Pupils broadened in scope.' 'The advantages are chiefly on the teachers' side. There is less nervous tension than when one carries so many subjects. The disadvantage is chiefly that teachers do not come into such close relations with pupils as under the other plan.' The principal of a Minneapolis school reports that, with the consent of the superintendent, three of his eighth-grade rooms had done their work on the departmental plan. One teacher taught grammar and music, another history and drawing, and the third arithmetic and reading and composition.[1] The plan proved highly satisfactory, but the principal would not propose it for any grade lower than the eighth, 'as it would involve a loss of individual influence on the part of the teacher upon the younger pupils,' but as a connecting link between the grades and the high school he thinks it useful.

Two good reasons were given for adopting depart-

[1] In fairness to the school it should be said that this is not the complete course of study for the eighth grade. 'Civics' is taken under the heading of general lessons; physiology and the elements of sanitary science form the 'health lessons'; manual training, in abeyance for a short time owing to shortness of funds, is part of the course. But even so the course cannot be considered adequate in the absence of algebra, geometry, and a foreign language for eighth-year, if not sixth and seventh year, pupils.

mental teaching by the principal of the Forestville School, Chicago. One was that all the apparatus required for the separate subjects could be gathered into one room ; at the same cost better apparatus could be purchased ; to enter one of the rooms, for example that in which the geography of the five upper grades was done, was to realise at once the force of this argument ; coloured representations placed against the windows in a mounting of darkened glass illustrated several matters related to the study of geography, such as the phases of moon, earth and sun, &c. ; there were excellent maps, globes and charts, a geographical library, and some good geological and mineral specimens. A second reason was that by this method the pupils remained for a considerable time in years, as distinguished from hours in each year, with the same teachers ; school unity and harmony [i.e. unity and harmony between grade and grade] is said to be promoted in this way. It should be added, by way of more fully stating the conditions which obtain in this school, that the principal is ubiquitous and untiring. Not a few educators think that with the rapid progress of the science and practice of teaching, departmental work will have to be done in the grades. 'Everything is being taught upon a new basis as compared with fifteen years ago—singing, history, nature-study, &c. ; a teacher who is nothing but a teacher (i.e. neither a student of her subject nor of pedagogical methods) will never make much headway.' Dr. Lane, supervising principal of the Washington High Schools, speaking in favour of departmental teaching in the upper grades, took for his illustration the case of a school with three eighth-grade classes, two of them in the charge of teachers who have literary leanings which 'unfortunately often means a

distaste for mathematics'; such teachers come to the arithmetic and algebra work with inadequate preparation and no enthusiasm with which to inspire their pupils. In the same building there may be a teacher who does all subjects fairly well, but none with any special choice or enthusiasm. It would be better if such a teacher were given the mathematics as a special subject; it would concentrate her interest and enable the others to follow their natural bent. In nearly every building, Dr. Lane thinks, some such exchange would be warranted by the temperament and taste of the teachers.

School No. 8 at Indianapolis is carrying out an interesting experiment on the lines of departmental instruction, which is likely to have an influence beyond its own city and State. It is a grammar school pure and simple; indeed, only the higher grammar grades are represented, from the upper section of the sixth to the eighth; there is not only departmental instruction, but a system of subject-classification. The principal is allowed the chief voice in the selection of teachers, and has a great opportunity, through his school, of showing how the work of the upper grammar grades in the public schools of his own and other cities may be strengthened. With him the plan is quite as much a means of reaching the individual pupil as of fitting the school work to the individual teacher. Not only is the ordinary teacher busied by the multiplicity of more or less advanced lessons to be arranged for and prepared in the upper grades, but a teacher strong in arithmetic may have no feeling, say, for art-work, no real sympathy, therefore, with the child who is strong in art-work but deficient in mathematics. 'Always before the boy is the one teacher who is fore-ordained to be wofully conscious of his

deficiency in arithmetic, and with whom this deficiency overshadows everything else.' This was, perhaps, an extreme way of stating the case, but it served to illustrate the fitting of teacher to pupil and pupil to teacher. Twelve Brooklyn schools are trying the experiment of departmental teaching in the upper grades ; the willingness to experiment in this way depending on two things—the first, that more has been discovered in education through experiment than by abstract reasoning ; and the second, the desire and ability of a principal to conduct such an experiment in his school.

CHAPTER VII

INDIVIDUALITY IN THE CHILD

'All can be trained. Few can be knowledge receptacles.'

ONE cannot but wish that it were possible to reproduce in a written description the impression made by some of the work witnessed in the lower grades of American schools. The naturalness of bearing, freedom of speech and movement, the constant exhibition of direct interest in their work showing that the children are doing what they like to do—a different, and in the theory of stimulus a more fundamental thing than merely liking to do what they have to do, implying a certain degree of child-study and also some attention to the following as well as to the training of the children's tastes.[1] This is the ultimate significance of the child study movement in America. The results which are looked for are not so much of the nature of hints as to how the teacher by knowing his 'material' may work it up according to some approved fashion, but how the child can be provided with the means and the environment wherewith and wherein to shape himself. It is a biological rather than,

[1] This, as has been said in a previous chapter, may be carried too far. But as a foundation principle, and in the earlier stages of education, the presenting of such knowledge as appeals to the child's hunger to know, and in such a manner as satisfies that hunger, seems to be the correct one.

in the abstract sense, a psychological point of view ; and psychological in so far as that means biological. It is child-nature, and the processes of mind-growth and character-making in the child, rather than laws of feeling, thinking, acting, which may serve as 'tips' to teachers for working the machinery which produces knowledge and morals. It is Froebel, not Loyola ; a philosophy of childhood, not a system of teaching and training. Dr. G. Stanley Hall looks upon the child study movement as slowly doing a work 'for studies of the mind not unlike that which Darwin did for the methods of nature study, or that embryology has done for anatomy, viz., cross-sectioning the old methods of analysis and classification of the powers and activities of the adult consciousness by bringing in a genetic method, based not upon abstraction, like Spencer's, but on a copious collection of carefully made and critically sifted objective data.'

Some Physical Aspects of Child Study.

'The first requisite to success in life,' says Spencer, 'is to be a good animal.' The first and foundation fact in childhood and in child education is the physical. The brain is not the mind, but, so far as this world goes, there is no mind in the absence of brain. Ounces avoirdupois would seem to be out of all relation to intellectual process and the acquisition of knowledge, yet the two things keep each other close company ; taking the average of cases, according to investigation, to be quoted immediately, when the one increases, so does the other. Arnold has told us that he found a constant and intimate association between moral and intellectual excellence. 'The more mind, the more love,' says an old Latin proverb ; modern child study is

ranging the body by the side of mind and character, and saying, more clearly than it has ever been said before, that physical endowment and development consort with intellectual. It is quite possible to amass a lot of figures and tables which, though filling one closely printed page after another, do not seem to tell us much beyond the generally accepted facts that children get taller and heavier as they grow older, and that the circumference of the head measures on the average slightly more in bright children than in dull ones. But there are results to be obtained by various anthropometric tests which show the relation between physical and mental growth, and may, in spite of the many exceptions, be looked upon as valuable generalisations. So, as the result of a careful comparison of Washington children of American parentage, we are told that the bright boys excel in height at ages 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17; in sitting height at all ages except 9, 11, and 14; in weight at all ages except 8, 9, and 14. Comparing all bright boys with all dull boys, without regard to sociological condition or foreign blood, the bright boys are found to excel in height at all ages except 13; in sitting height at all ages except 9, 11, 13 and 14; and in weight at all ages except 8, 12, 13, and 14. Some extremely well-conducted experiments are being made by the staff of the child study department under the Chicago Board of Education.[1] Measurements are made of the height and weight of children, tests of strength, endurance, vital capacity, sight and hearing. Two main points are established: (1) The greater power of physical endurance in boys than in girls, in the proportion of 100 to 79,

[1] See Appendix D. The figures and statements given above are from the Report of 1899. Appendix D contains figures and results published in the Report of 1900, which has come more recently to hand.

taking the average of the eleven years between six and sixteen. The least difference is at nine years of age, when the proportion is 100 to 90; the greatest difference at sixteen in the proportion of 100 to 68. (2) The relation between mental and physical capacity. This is ascertained by comparing in height, weight, work done on the ergograph, vital or breathing capacity, and grip, children of approximately the same age in different grades from the second to the seventh, or the third to the eighth; the grading being accepted as a rough estimate of intellectual capacity. Taking the two facts together, that mental capacity varies with physical strength, and that girls have less physical strength than boys, amounting, so far as the Chicago tests go, on an average to only three-fourths of a boy's strength between the ages of twelve and sixteen, one is disposed to question the implicit faith which it is the American fashion to express in co-education. It looks as though the girls were being worked too hard, or the boys not hard enough; the fact being that the boys often seemed not to be worked hard enough from twelve to fourteen,[1]

[1] In answer to this it is sometimes said, even in the highest quarters, that inasmuch as girls quite frequently do better than boys in their school work during these years, not only is there no ground for fearing over-pressure upon the girls, but that if the boys are not hard enough worked it is because they do not work hard enough. This, however, proves much less than it appears to do. For if, as is often the case, the course of study is more consonant with the tastes and growing sensibilities of the girl (dealing principally with the humane studies, art, literature, history, expression), one might almost foretell some such result. Many of us would have been beaten by our sisters on these lines—and without much chagrin, but we coveted the power to hold our own in mathematics, the more difficult languages (such as Latin), and science study. Of course, there are many girls who have both ability and taste in these directions, just as there are boys who have not. Probably some modification of the principle of coeducation, so far as curriculum is concerned, would meet the case, or an extension of the bifurcation which is already common with

i.e. during the last two years in the graded schools; and the girls too hard from fourteen to sixteen, which correspond roughly to the first two years in the high school. There are such great compensating advantages, that on a plea bearing upon the purely intellectual side of education, one may well hesitate either to express or even to entertain doubts about end-to-end co-education. Perhaps a more rapid promotion of boys, and a filling-in of part of the school time of the girls with some lighter occupations, would meet the case. But opinion is divided somewhat even in America. New York especially is favourably disposed towards separate departments and even separate schools. And Dr. Christopher says, in his report on the child study investigation in Chicago: 'If these results be true, they may have some bearing on the question of co-education, and they would seem to indicate that somewhere in the upper grades the sexes might, with advantage to both, be separated in instruction, and possibly larger demands made of the boys.' [1]

Another outcome of the child-study movement has been in the direction of adapting school methods, especially in the kindergarten and lower or primary grades, so that what is demanded of the child may correspond to the order of muscular and general physical, as well as mental, development. This adaptation has assumed two or three phases which may be cited. There is a considerable outcry in some quarters against the use of the

respect to the manual arts (wood and iron work on the one hand, cookery and sewing on the other); provided that the line was not made so hard and fast as to be exclusive.

[1] In connection with the tables and diagrams contained in Appendix D, it should be said that any parent can take a child to be examined in all the ways specified, quite gratuitously, receiving the card there reproduced filled in in every essential particular. The results obtained are often such as to call for individualising both in the gymnasium and the classroom.

smaller sets of kindergarten gifts, the two-inch cubes being preferred to the one-inch, as requiring less exact adjustment and correspondingly less nervous strain; weaving with thick wool or raphia, the warp being attached to simple frames, is preferred for a similar reason to the fine strips of coloured paper commonly used in weaving. Writing commences on the blackboard, using the larger muscles, which are the first to be brought under control; often, too, when the children begin to use paper, they are purposely given paper without lines, that they may not feel cramped and strained by the effort to keep within them; then one line is used, and later two. But the most general application of the principles of physiological psychology to the school work is the universally admitted claim of manual training in some form or other throughout all the grades; the expense stands in the way in some places, but the conviction is there awaiting practical expression. The best arranged school work that was observed in any of the cities visited was at Minneapolis. The school report for 1899 contains a reference to the gradual change during the preceding five years in the course of study for the primary grades leading to 'a more systematic arrangement and a better doing,' and due mainly to 'study of the principles underlying the doing, and intelligent study of the child with whom is the doing.' For some four years it has been the custom of the teachers of each grade to devote a series of weeks or months to a definite topic of study, in order that, by concentrating upon one subject, the influence upon the branch of work concerned may be permanent. For 1898–99 the subject taken up with the first grade teachers was motor activity. Articles and letters from eminent outside authorities were read and discussed.

At the end each teacher was asked to write a paper embodying the result of the year's study. More than half responded, and a summary, which might be called 'a creed accepted by the supervisor and the majority—perhaps all—of the primary teachers' was incorporated in the report of the Board of Education:

We believe that the training of the hand is a vital part of the growth of the child; that the development of power to see and to think along *any* line is strengthened by accompanying motor-expression.

The following words of Dr. Edward R. Shaw should be heeded:

'Seek in every subject of study, especially in the lower grades, to provide motor activity, at least as an accompaniment of study and of recitation. If possible, however, invent means which shall use up the motor tendencies, and at the same time make a contributing part of the more purely thought work required of the child. In short, let some DOING accompany all the child's efforts to LEARN.'

Because we believe these truths, we make the following recommendations, and feel like urging teachers to test their value:

1. For each child in the first grade, at least one period daily in which the children shall be engaged in 'making something' without the teacher's supervision.

2. For each child in the first grade, at least one period daily in which he shall be writing or drawing upon the blackboard.

3. For all children, encouragement in 'making things' at home in connection with school work.

The decision of the Minneapolis Board to establish a course of manual training in the first six grades is in harmony with these principles. As to what has been previously done in this direction the report may be quoted further:

Schoolroom Occupations.—As every teacher of little children realises, the direct bearing of this study upon the schoolroom work is in its application to the great problem of first-year primary work, under present conditions. (Three or more large classes in one room! At least two classes at a time that must work independently of the teacher! Each class composed of little ones not yet ready for book or pen!) The study of this practical side of the question was carried on along with that of the theoretical. Whenever convenient for the teacher, samples of 'things made' by the children, as related to the thoughts of their 'general lesson' and reading, were sent to the office to be used at the next meeting for illustration and suggestions. At the close of the year these samples, mounted and displayed on tables, afforded material for a very interesting and profitable afternoon hour. The collection told more than words of the imagination and power of the child-minds that had directed and controlled the activity of the little fingers. The following tabulation of this handwork of the children is of interest, showing the wide range of their thought as thus embodied:

1. *Things Made* (materials and tools in most general use in school: Paper, sewing cards, pasteboard, paste, scissors, needles, worsted, scraps of cloth, toothpicks, peas, clay): Baskets; pilgrim houses, cradles, ships; pilgrim bonnets, caps, hats, kerchiefs, aprons; dolls dressed as pilgrims (clothespegs); tables, sofas, carpets (weaving), candlesticks, screens, clocks, chairs, bedsteads, napkin-rings, cups and saucers, bowls, windmills, kites, trunks, boxes; blacksmith's anvils, hammers; soldiers' tents, Indian wigwams, sleds, Esquimaux sleds; trays (for pens, pencils, pins, &c.); blotters, pen-wipers; matchholders; calendars, valentines; and other articles. After careful oral directions and some practice in similar work with the teacher, these were made *without* the teacher's supervision. In some instances directions and diagrams were placed upon the blackboard; in some, the child depended upon memory of oral directions; in some, the completed article was placed before the child as a model; in some, he was left to choose his own subjects and make his own plans.

2. *Representation of Objects* (made by cutting and pasting): Flags, rakes, ladders, shovels, hatchets, houses, bird-houses, chairs, tables, bedsteads, wagons, cans, measures, cups, bowls, plates, table-cloths, towels, &c. Diagrams are usually drawn on the board, showing proportions and arrangement; children are sometimes left to make their own choice of subject and plan.[1]

These are some of the practical results of the child study movement, the underlying motive of which is, as Dean Russell of Teachers College said, 'intensely individualistic'; or, as was said by Professor Burnham, of Clark University, 'Child study is the very culmination of the individualistic movement. The teacher and the doctor make their notes and suggestions; the boy is known physically, mentally, and in his moral characteristics.' The parent, for example, is brought into closer touch and co-operation with the school, which means that the two great institutions which are training the child, the home and the school, are enabled to work together on a basis of exact information; the danger is being removed, wherever child study is carried on as it is at Chicago, of a child being called foolish at home and a dunce at school, simply through some physical defect, as of sight or hearing.[2]

[1] A large number of these and other articles were seen in the supervisor's room at the Board of Education office, and were, many of them, exceedingly ingenious and neatly executed. They represented the work of children in all the primary grades. For the meaning of 'general lesson,' see the example briefly described on p. 45.

[2] 'How much inharmony and discord, how much fret and worry might be eliminated from the schoolroom if the teacher understood the simple fact that all eyes have not the same angle or axis, and that therefore each one of us, in school or out, learns to carry his head in that manner best suited to the angle of his own individual eyes.

'It is manifestly unwise, and in direct defiance of the laws of optics, to try to force children to a uniform level in the matter of book holding. In such things each child must be his own guide: and the level he habitually seeks for his book when he stands to read is for him the

Some Pedagogical Applications of Child Study.

In many schools, as, for example, in Philadelphia, the principal keeps a register in which every observed trait of individual character is noted down by the teachers; on the strength of this record the child is 'summed up' at the end of the year, and the record given to the teacher into whose class the pupil passes. A teacher in this way starts with some knowledge of the child's temperament, and with information as to ways of dealing with him which have proved successful. Special note is made of physical weaknesses of any kind. At Springfield, Massachusetts, which has an excellent repute, forms are sent to the homes of pupils entering the high school, and also to the teachers through whose hands the pupils have previously passed, so that as much as possible may be known of the individual history of the children who are entering upon the high school course; this shows that child study is not looked upon as helpful only in the earlier stages of a child's education, but that it bears some of its most valuable fruit when the time arrives for determining what the secondary education of the child is to be. At Dayton, where, as already stated, the superintendent is gradually introducing a new pedagogical spirit, the first step in the way of child study has been to take every two or three weeks typical instances of the best work, the mediocre, and the worst work in each class, so that by the end of the year the teacher can form some idea of the progress of different sections of the class, and the

natural level. Every effort to force a uniform level of book holding upon the children is a wasted effort; and not only that, but an effort that brings in its train discord and annoyance, irritability in the teacher, and deadened interest in the child.'—M. L. Pratt, M.D., in the *Popular Educator* for April 1900.

relative rates of progress of the bright and the dull pupils, as well as make a comparison of strong and weak points. Teachers in coloured schools are also studying the negro children, and in time the results of their work will furnish a valuable contribution to the question of the education of dependent races. Valuable work is done in Sioux City both in recording pupils' characteristics and in a special study of backward pupils. The advantages which have followed from keeping a record of the chief characteristics of each pupil, and noting at bi-monthly intervals any changes which are observed, are summed up by the superintendent under six or seven headings:

1. An interest in child study amongst the teachers: 'Teachers say that their pupils are in their thoughts as never before; individual peculiarities are better understood, a deeper insight gained into child nature,' &c.
2. Better understanding on the part of teachers of the real needs and defects of their pupils, and a correspondingly greater definiteness of aim.
3. Some children hitherto considered hopelessly dull have been found to be simply dull in hearing or hindered by defective eyesight.
4. Teachers have been able to seat pupils with reference to their ability to see and hear.
5. The improvement of the relations between teachers and pupils, especially in the more intelligent and sympathetic treatment of troublesome children.
6. The awakening in the teachers of a new consciousness of the meaning of the school life to them and to the pupils.[1]

The study of retarded pupils, i.e. of those who are a year or more behind in work, taking as a standard the average age of the pupils in the grades according to the records of the preceding year, gives some interesting

[1] For a copy of the card issued to teachers in the Sioux City Public Schools, see Appendix D.

results. The data were obtained by the teachers in private conversation with each pupil, and by consulting with the parents in cases which presented any difficulty or uncertainty. It was fully realised that several causes might co-operate to produce retardation, but the chief one in each case was noted down for the purposes of tabulation and comparison; such causes as poor teaching, lack of home training, arrested development, were not likely to come to the surface in such an inquiry, yet with all allowances of this kind the study had its value, and gave each teacher who took it up some knowledge of the drawbacks which accounted for the 35 per cent. of retarded pupils in their schools.

Causes of Retardation of Pupils, December 1897.

Grades	8th	7th	6th	5th	4th	3rd	2nd	1st	Pre.	Total
No. of pupils canvassed	207	312	384	499	636	607	599	691	657	4592
Entered late	31	43	51	59	61	47	66	78	43	479
Poor health[1]	15	20	33	39	41	26	24	28	9	245
Attended other schools	23	20	34	40	38	22	18	19	1	215
Mental deficiency	6	13	21	19	32	42	26	18	—	177
No cause given	9	6	20	49	42	10	10	4	1	151
Irregular attendance	20	12	19	11	26	21	21	15	5	150
Lack of application	3	9	11	18	15	8	22	3	—	89
Foreigners	—	—	1	4	7	5	5	9	4	35
Defective sight	1	—	2	2	4	3	5	5	—	22
Kept out to work	1	3	—	—	1	6	3	—	—	14
Defective hearing	1	—	1	2	3	1	3	2	—	13
Poverty	—	1	1	1	1	—	—	1	1	6
Advanced too rapidly	—	—	1	2	1	1	1	—	—	6
Lack of home training	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	1	—	3
Total No. retarded	110	127	195	246	272	194	204	193	64	1605

[1] The number of cases under the heading 'poor health' leads to the comment: 'Ought there not to be a medical inspector of schools con-

The honour of having originated the child study movement in America is by one and all accorded to Dr. G. Stanley Hall, President of Clark University. It follows two main lines or methods—that of physiological psychology, which is inductive, and proceeds from physical conditions to psychical; and that of the Froebelian philosophy, which is deductive, and proceeds from the inner nature of the child to an interpretation of and provision for his spontaneous activity. Not that the study is restricted to the kindergarten and lower grades; it is extended to all the grades, and in some cases, as that of Springfield, to the high schools as well.

One of the ablest critics of the child study movement is Mr. Ossian Lang, editor of the 'School Journal' and other valuable educational publications. In a paper read before the Child Study Department of the National Educational Association, at the meetings of the Association in 1898, he called attention to some of the cautions to be observed in child study. In the first place, 'the exuberance of the first proselytes in child study' had given speakers and writers of a satirical turn of mind many an opportunity to say witty things about pedagogic fads. Some extremists think that they have found in child study grounds for an entirely new departure, that the whole of the pedagogical foundations which have

nected with every school system? As a matter of economy of the time of our pupils and teachers, saying nothing about the decrease in suffering, would it not prove a wise provision? The best resources of a city are found in the strong muscle and clear brain of its citizens, and what fosters these directly ministers to the city's best interests.' According to the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1897–98, a system of daily inspection of schools by physicians had at that time been introduced in several cities, amongst others, Boston, New York, Chicago, Philadelphia. St. Louis, Fall River, and one or two townships in Massachusetts reported similar movements.

been laid are to count for nothing, and a *de novo* science of education is to result from their efforts. With others child study is 'a pretty toy . . . . Even —— has not been able to keep his books of child studies free from coloured statements, which add considerable brightness to the collection, but can hardly be expected to have pedagogic or psychologic value. The trouble with the general run of children's sayings is that they are so decidedly commonplace that a collection of them would have but little selling power.' A further caution barring the way to implicit acceptance of the results of teachers' data obtained by questioning the children in their classes, is the tendency of answers so given to be mere reflections or summaries of what the teachers would have stated in almost similar terms. Nor are the children likely to aid willingly in any scheme which will reveal their weaknesses. 'A great deal of nonsense has been proclaimed with solemnity, purporting to be revelations of children's likes and dislikes. . . . And right here,' says Mr. Lang, 'let me add that I am firmly opposed to all methods of prying and spying into the child's soul, unless there is serious and absolute need for it. The child's secrets must be respected, and the things which appear most hallowed to him must not be rudely handled.' Nothing could better illustrate the attitude of pause and transition with respect to child study, its methods, and its real value to the educator, which prevails in America at the present moment than Mr. Lang's concluding words. Distinguished educators have lost caste by pushing the popular aspects of child study to extremes. One large city during the writer's visit was in a state of excitement owing to methods which were being pursued, and which quite rightly had to be withheld as soon as they were looked at in their true light.

A committee of medical experts in pursuit of data may, without intending any disrespect to the child, place questions in the hands of teachers which should only be asked through the children's parents. It is a moment of pause, in many ways, as the Dean of Teachers College said in speaking of the movement, 'there is a reaction; the frothy phase of child study is over, but the reaction is not to the harm of the movement.' Mr. Lang concluded his paper with words which indicate the position of equilibrium which child study in America is attaining:

Nothing final must be expected from child study. Every human being surrounds himself with some reserve, and even if teachers could look right into the child's soul, they would not be able to understand it.

The most fruitful line of child study is that which aids the teacher to determine the effect of his teaching upon pupils, to find out whether the children have grasped ideas or only words, and to watch their educational growth. Studies of this kind are really self-examinations, and ought to be invaluable sources of counsel as regards choice of studies and form of instruction.

Closely allied to this form of child study is that which tests the educability of pupils, which includes the study of their educational needs as well as their capacities, and aids to a recognition of what is good for the pupil and what is best adapted to further his growth.

Really profitable educational child studies can be conducted only by trained teachers who possess pedagogic knowledge, skill, and, above all, tact and love of children. Trained educators derive from child study invaluable data revealing the educational needs of their pupils, and they turn it to good account also in the testing of the effect of their methods of teaching.

The child's appetites are not a reliable index to his needs. A boy, and normal at that, may be fonder of green apples than

of oatmeal. There is no such thing as spontaneous recognition of what is good for him. Some teachers have found that children can be fed even on grammar.

Still, the children's appetites and interests must be studied. It is absolutely necessary that they should be known. Economy is the watchword of modern pedagogics. The study of interests reveals the lines of least resistance in the child's make-up. Child study here serves the most useful purpose.

All child studies must have behind them, under them, and within them an educational or pedagogic purpose, if they are to be of any help to teachers. Before beginning an investigation, it must be known what to do with the result.

At the present time the range of interests included in child study is being widened. As an example of this, the programme of the sixth annual congress of the Illinois Society for Child Study may be quoted. The writer attended the whole of the meetings, with the exception of a business meeting at 10.30 on the first day, interesting only to members of the Society.

Friday, May 11, at the Chicago Kindergarten College :

2 P.M.

THE SUNDAY SCHOOL.

1. The Need of Pedagogical Method in the Sunday School.
2. Bible Literature and the Development of the Child.

Discussion.

8 P.M.

1. The Cultivation of the Sense of Beauty.
2. The Significance of the Movement for Decorating School Rooms.
3. The Psychology of Literary Expression.

Discussion.

Saturday, May 12, in the Y.M.C.A. Building :

9.45 A.M.

1. The Child a Social Being.
2. The Bearing of Modern Education on Present Social Conditions.
3. Self-directed Group Work in the Chicago Normal School. Illustrated by Stereopticon.

Discussion.

2 P.M.

1. Fatigue: Its Character and Results.
2. The results of Medical Inspection in Saving Child.

Discussion.

This programme shows at a glance that child study is coming to be recognised as a branch of sociology, with close relations to such other branches as religion, art, and economics ; also that it takes account of specific and individual effects of a secondary education upon the poor man's home—this being the purport of the second paper read on the Saturday morning. Another thing standing out clearly in the programme is that it is the social or civic selfhood of the child that is aimed at. 'This country,' said Dean Russell, speaking from one point of view, 'is pledged to individualism. We are growing into it in ever so many ways. The fact that there is equality of opportunity has a tendency to emphasise the individual and to make an excellent field for the growth of individuality. The great strides that have been made in this country have been made on that sort of inspiration. The very thought that it is possible for poor boys to become presidents, as Garfield and Lincoln have done, makes people feel that anything which tends to hamper indi-

vidual development is sin.' This is the political side of the great democratic principle which, none the less, makes the educator see in the child not only a being with rights, but also a being with duties; he must be trained as a social being, say the child students, for the sake of society as well as for himself; and unless he is so trained society can never give to him of its best, nor can he contribute that to society which community conditions demand of him. Personality, in other words, is bi-polar. It has its social and its individual aspects, but these are inseparable.

Schools for Defective Children.

One extremely important adaptation of education to individual needs is the establishment of schools for defective children. In 1898, thirty-six schools for the blind, 105 for the deaf, twenty-nine for the feeble-minded sent reports and statistics of their work to the Bureau of Education at Washington. The majority of these schools are State institutions or public day schools, supported by the cities in which they are found. The New York State school for the blind at Batavia is a fine building, healthily situated in the midst of large grounds. Pupils enter at all ages, in many instances without having had any home training. Pupils' work was seen at this school, ranging from the kindergarten classes, in which lessons are worked out with great accuracy in sand, enabling one to realise the immense amount of picturing power which can be acquired through the fingers; the model of a farmyard, for instance, had its surrounding wall of cardboard or wood, a pigeon-cote, tree with nest, summer-house, flower-bed with violets; ornamental sewing is decorated with flags in wool and other designs; geography is taught by means of a

raised map, which can be broken up into parts representing the separate States, which the children can name from their outline and the character of their surface; cities are represented by tacks, large ones being used for capital cities. A large number of the pupils learn to use the ordinary Remington typewriter, and one remarkable thing, more particularly after what had been seen in some of the ordinary schools, was the accuracy of the spelling; there was also script writing of very good quality. As reported in 1898, there were six male and eight female instructors; four of these were in the department of music and three in the industrial department; there were seventy-eight male and sixty-four female pupils, fifty-seven learning instrumental music, seventy-seven in the industrial department, nineteen in the kindergarten. The annual cost per pupil was $314; the value of the scientific apparatus, $4,280; of grounds and buildings, $355,000; the year's expenditure on buildings and improvements, $4,213; for support, $39,171. A city public school for the deaf was visited in Boston—the Horace Mann School, containing 120 children. The classes are small, averaging about eight children in each. Here, of course, it is the picturing power of the eye that is appealed to, and children who had been admitted in September were able in April to write 'leaf' on the blackboard opposite the drawing of a leaf, the knowledge of language being conveyed by what is practically a Gouin method. The teacher, using descriptive movements when necessary, may write 'fall' on the board; the first one to catch the idea falls, and the others imitate; the leader in this case having been a boy named Frank, the teacher wrote on the board, 'Frank fell,' which the children understood. These children went through such phonics, as

d, *t*, *f*, *v*, and had acquired nearly all the elementary sounds, by copying the lip movements of the teacher, an ability which will not surprise anyone who knows how the Lancashire weavers are able to converse across the room in the midst of the deafening roar of the looms by reading each other's lip movements. One child read the diphthongs *aw*, *ow*, *oo*, and the simpler letters *a* in 'am' and *e* in 'we.' A second child came up and pointed out the letters *g*, *n*, *m* on a chart from the sounds given by the teacher and read from her lips. A third wrote the letters *f*, *s*, *p*, *m* from the teacher's phonic dictation. Then the sound *ar* was taken, and, after one or two had tried, one child was found able to do the word-building exercise, *p-ar-t*, *c-ar-t*, *d-ar-t*. In response to a question as to whether the children knew the things of which many of the words they had mastered were the names, the teacher either drew or pointed to objects, and the children were able to point from the name to the picture or object, and from the picture or object to the name. In one of the upper classes the reading lesson was on the sculptor Antonio, and so swift is the mind, when rightly trained, to repair a physical defect, that one almost forgot that it was to the lip language, and not the sounds, that the children were responding. 'What have we been reading about?' said the teacher. 'We have been reading about Antonio.' 'What did he become?' 'He became one of the great sculptors of the world.' 'What did Antonio like to do when he was a little boy?' 'He liked to play with chips of stone in his grandfather's yard.' Even correct pronunciation was taught. The word 'sculptor' was given the sound 'scoolptor,' and the teacher said, 'In Miss ——'s class, in the physiology have you not learnt to pronounce "skull"?' In this class was a boy who had not sufficient

hearing for the ordinary school, but was making great progress here ; and there were some in the school who had lost their hearing after they had learned to speak, in whom the power of speech, which often lapses when hearing is lost, was being saved and associated with sight symbols instead of sounds.[1] One interesting personal incident occurred, showing the ready use of language which the pupils acquire. There was a little fellow from Manchester (England) to whom a visitor from that city naturally felt somewhat drawn. After spending a little time with him, the party of visitors were passing with the principal in front of the open door of the class-room to which this boy had returned. He had evidently been relating his experiences to the teacher and others, for as we passed he exclaimed, 'There's the man!' in such a way that one would not have known him from a hearing child. The statistics of this school in 1898 were: 16 instructors, 121 pupils (all taught by purely oral, i.e. lip, method), 1,028 books in library ; cost per head, $200 ; value of grounds and buildings, $98,000 ; annual cost of buildings, &c., $1,584 ; for support, $20,256.

Individuality in the Ordinary School Work.

So far one has spoken chiefly of the child study movement and its more direct effects. Some phases of the general question of individuality in the child, so far as his school life and school work are concerned, have been touched upon in the chapter on teaching methods. One form of address, which is quite common in asking questions, impresses the listener as a pleasing because natural way of allowing the child to feel that he per-

[1] Some of the work of this school has been described in the *Report on Moral Education in American Schools.*

sonally is being appealed to. The form of questioning or setting a lesson is very frequently permissive rather than mandatory—'You may tell me, ——'; '——, you may write'; '——, you may read.' A number of instances might be quoted referring to the attitude of children to their class work. They would come under such headings as spontaneous art work, spontaneity of expression in oral and written composition, inventiveness in manual occupations, home reading and research, personal observation in nature study. The constructive work done in the Minneapolis schools illustrates the spirit underlying these voluntary efforts and expressions of the children, both when the articles are made out of scraps of material found at home and when they are made out of materials provided at school. The enthusiasm of children is so infectious that in one Minneapolis school the janitor had in his spare time made the children wooden frames for weaving, just as caretakers of English schools, being often old army and navy men, are known to take delight in training a team of boys for the tug-of-war contest in the annual school sports of a large town. A rather striking example of the willing co-operation of a pupil in the conduct of a lesson was observed at Indianapolis. The lesson was on grammar, and the class was the eighth, the highest in the school. A girl attempted the analysis and parsing of a sentence; it was intended, under the teacher's direction, to be a sort of challenge to the class to criticise or question her effort. When she finished, a dozen or more stood up who were prepared to question her with a view to pointing out mistakes which she had made or bringing out certain points more clearly. As the girl had made some rather bad mistakes, one felt that the cross-examination was somewhat of an ordeal,

for the children—boys and girls of thirteen and fourteen—asked questions quite equal in point and consecutiveness to those one is accustomed to from the average teacher. 'If the verb "have" is an auxiliary verb, what is the principal verb?' 'If "without" is an adverb, what are you going to do with the word "plan"?' '"Plan,"' said the girl, 'is a noun.' 'In what case?' The surprising thing was that when all the mistakes had been thrashed out, the girl, so far from having had too much, appealed to the class for a further explanation. She said, 'I do not understand the word "never" in the sentence.' A number stood up, and the help given took the form not of telling, but of a number of suggestive questions which made the matter clear to the pupil. In the Indianapolis school, containing only the upper or grammar grades, where subject classification has been adopted with considerable success, the teacher said to his class, also of the eighth grade, 'For to-morrow's lesson I want each one of you to prepare an oral conversation on one of the prominent leaders, English or American' [the class was nearing the end of a course on the Revolutionary War]. 'Give as many things as you can about the character of a general, an admiral, a political director, financial helper, or any man or woman who was prominent. Give your descriptions in the first person, and the class will guess of whom you are talking.' The teacher added, 'The more sources you go to for information the harder it will be to guess.' As one other illustration of children's spontaneity in school work, a beautiful piece of illustrated composition done by a coloured child in a Dayton school is specially deserving of mention.[1] In looking through some very

[1] In selecting isolated examples in this way much that was excellent is, of course, passed over; for instance, some remarkably good 'cutting

good specimens of art work, following out principles in connection with which the superintendent's name is well known in America, there were one or two examples of colouring characterised by a warmth and tenderness which provoked remark. One was told in reply that they were done by a coloured girl in the seventh grade between thirteen and fourteen years of age, whose gifts all her teachers were aware of, but whose parents were too poor to hold out to her any encouragement of a continued art training. A week or two previously the teacher of the grade had given as the subject for composition, 'If I could do as I please.' Some very varied, and many of them very interesting, essays were written ; but none more so than the essay of this girl, whose ambition would be to be an artist and to produce work honouring to her people. If she could do as she pleased, she said, she would travel to Europe, visiting on her way the Statue of Liberty presented to the United States by France, and the Katskill Mountains, where she would enjoy the scenery and sketch. After a month in London she would go to Italy to see the works of the Italian artists, and 'would spend days and weeks visiting the ruins of ancient places and castles for which Italy is noted.' After making many interesting sketches in sunny Italy, she would sail for Egypt, the 'Mother of History,' see the Pyramids and the Sphinx, and return to America. After visiting Niagara Falls, she would return to 'Gem City,' Dayton, Ohio. Her paintings she would send to an exhibition at Chicago. From these she would make her fortune and spend a

out' in tissue paper with scissors (freehand) representing the picture which first grade children had in their minds of the Hiawatha story, and some strong colour work were seen at Minneapolis, Chicago, and other places. The study of 'current events' or 'recent history' also gives good opportunity for individual work amongst members of the class.

happy life, aiding and helping her fellow-men. In addition to the simple language and pleasing thought of the essay, it was illustrated with water-colour sketches of the vessel in which she would sail, 'Bound for London,' the Katskill Mountains, and lake at the foot of the mountains ; a pen-and-ink drawing of the Statue of Liberty ; and pencil drawings of an Italian ruin, the Pyramids with a view of the Nile, and the first log cabin in Dayton. The whole thing was as true to herself as if she had been writing with exquisite care a letter to a friend ; and realised the idea of the principal of one of the Washington schools, that 'the child of thirteen or fourteen writing an essay should get something of himself into it. If it is only a grain of his own individuality, that, on the top of the drill which he goes through in the hands of the right teacher, promises something.'

Individuality in the learner, in some instances even in the elementary schools, and commonly in the high schools, is further provided for by allowing elective studies. It has generally been assumed, as Mr. J. T. Prince, agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, has shown in a valuable series of reports on a 'Course of Studies for Elementary Schools,' that the subjects taught in grades below the high school are needful for all pupils, irrespective of their future career. Of recent years there has been a movement in the direction of introducing new studies into the grammar school course (higher elementary grades), and this has led in certain cities to optional courses in these grades. As a result of his inquiry, Mr. Prince found that in sixteen places a choice of studies was permitted to pupils in the elementary grades, either as extra studies or as options. Thus, six places reported Latin as options instead of

English grammar in the seventh, eighth, or ninth grades, and one reported German as so offered. Brookline had added French to the seventh, eighth, and ninth year courses, and Latin to the ninth. Four places had adopted Latin as an extra elective study (in two cases in practice schools only, and not throughout the system). One place had similarly adopted German, one French, and one manual training. Algebra and geometry were reported as optional in lieu of arithmetic in one city, and algebra alone in another. Inasmuch as algebra and geometry have already a place in the upper grades of several cities, and might easily have in all, the chief interest centres in the language options. The average period during which electives had been permitted in elementary grades when Mr. Prince reported in 1898 was less than two years.

In the high schools the principle of electives has come to be pretty generally recognised. At Cambridge (Boston), for example, Professor Hanus said, 'There is not a high school in the vicinity which does not recognise the elective system, excepting the Latin school, which is solely a preparatory school. There is a distinction to be drawn between secondary education and preparation for college and the university, but there will be electives probably in the preparatory school as options are allowed for entrance at the university.' The distinction drawn by Professor Hanus corresponds to the description of the high school, which one quite commonly hears in America, as 'the people's college.' 'We must have an elastic course,' said the supervising principal of high schools at Washington; 'if we are to educate for the State, we must educate the individual; preparing him for the technical school, the university, or for business life, and the girl for the normal school

and the work of teaching.' At Washington one language is obligatory, either Latin, French, or German ; English is obligatory ; a second language, chemistry, and all other subjects are elective. At the Oswego High School there are six or seven subjects, from which the pupils may select four. At Chicago the high school course a few years ago was fairly rigid, the only option being between one of three foreign languages ; last year (1899–1900) about half of the studies were elective ; now everything, with the exception of a two years' course in English, is elective. The principal of the Hyde Park High School, Chicago, attributed the extension of the elective system to three things, or rather three phases of one prevailing tendency at present in American education : (*a*) progress along various lines of experimentation, owing to (*b*) the present being a period of transition, under (*c*) the dominating influence which the attention being devoted to the individual is exerting. At this last educators are working in every possible way, in some places with the moral idea foremost, in others with the intellectual (questions of grading, &c.). Each of the high school principals in Chicago was consulted about the change just made ; it is understood to mean something more serious than giving the pupil a perfectly free choice ; the motive is a humane one, to quote still the principal of the Hyde Park School, to avoid forcing a pupil after he has passed through the elementary school to study subjects for which he has no taste or capacity, but there is no intention of permitting indiscriminate selection ; the pupil must have a reason for his choice and the final decision will rest upon the joint action of pupil, parents, teachers and principal.

The writer was present at the meeting of the Chicago Board of Education at which, after an interesting discus-

sion, the latest proposal was adopted.[1] But to illustrate the way in which opinions may and do clash, the very same evening that these resolutions had been passed 'for making the work of the high schools more elastic, more practical, and better adapted to the needs and aptitudes of the individual,' the following notes were taken from an article in the current number of the 'Atlantic Monthly,' by Professor Münsterberg, on *School Reform*, in which he referred to the successive hobbies of his boyhood, botany, electrical experimenting, Islamism, and ethnology; and added:

I have spoken of these boyish passions not only to show that we had an abundance of free time (and this at the German gymnasium) and the best opportunities for the growth of individual likings, but for the purpose of emphasising—and I add this with all the gratitude of my heart to my parents, my teachers, and the community—that the school never took the smallest account of these inclinations, and never allowed me to take the slightest step aside from the prescribed school work. My school work was not adjusted to botany at nine years because I played with an herbarium, and at twelve to physics because I indulged in noises with home-made electric bells, and at fifteen to Arabic—an elective which I miss still in several high schools, even in —— and ——. The more my friends and I wandered afield with our little superficial interests and talents and passions, the more was the straightforward earnestness of the school our blessing; and all that beautified and enriched our youth, and gave to it freshness and liveliness, would have turned out to be our ruin, if our elders had taken it seriously, and had formed a life's programme out of our petty caprices and boyish inclinations. I still remember

[1] See Appendix E. Whether the movement towards elective courses in the high schools is due to the child study movement, or to the example of the colleges and universities, in which Harvard, under President Eliot, has taken the lead, is not easy to say. Probably each has contributed its influence, the former indirectly, the latter directly.

how my father spoke to me, when I was a boy of twelve. I was insisting that Latin was of no use to me, as I should become a poet or a physicist. He answered: 'If a lively boy has to follow a country road, it is a natural and good thing for him to stroll a hundred times from the way, and pick flowers and run for butterflies over the fields on both sides of the road. But if you say to him, "There is no road for you, follow your butterflies," where will he find himself at nightfall?' Our German school . . . made no concession to individual likings and preferences. . . .

. . . The higher the level on which professional specialising begins, the more effective it is. . . . At least the high school ought to be faithful to its only goal of general education without professional anticipations. . . .

Life is not, after all, so easily manufactured as the advertising circular of a private boarding school, in which everything is exactly adapted to the individual needs.

After showing that the name elective covers two very different tendencies, the beginning of professional training on the one hand, and the adjusting of the school work to the innate talents and likings of the pupil on the other, Professor Münsterberg continued:

In the first case the university method filters down to the school, in the second case the kindergarten method creeps up to the school. The one method treats the boy as a child, and the other treats the boy as a man. . . . The one fits the mercenary spirit of our time, and the other fits its spirit of selfish enjoyment.

The very wide interest aroused by this article showed how willing the American teacher is to give ear to earnest words even when they run counter to the prevailing mood.

Part II

THE MORAL AIM IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

IN ITS RELATION TO THE

PRINCIPLE OF INDIVIDUALITY

CHAPTER VIII

INDIVIDUALITY AND THE MORAL AIM IN EDUCATION

'All partake of the common life.'

ROUSSEAU bade society let the individual alone. 'The whole trend of evolution now,' says the Cleveland superintendent in his report for 1899, 'is toward the perfection and preservation of every individual—making every one fit to live because the personality and immortality which are ours make the individual worth the effort of all. On a small scale this is the theory of modern political organisation.' Here we are at opposite poles of thought. The one says: So far as possible, let society do nothing for the individual; it can but cramp and mar him. The other says: Let society do everything it can; let political organisation have as its motif to preserve and perfect the individual. Each view has its representatives amongst American educators. There is one American school, the University Elementary School at Chicago,[1] which appears to have

[1] Since June 1900, Mrs. Ella F. Young, now on the university staff, one of the clearest thinkers and ablest school organisers whom it was the writer's pleasure to meet, has joined the small committee of management; and the school which, in spite of its eccentricities and its general *Weissnichtwoheit*, has some one or two great principles behind it, will have expert directors, out of whose efforts some good results must come. What is said in the text is based upon observation of the school as it was in

as part of its aim to leave the child to work out his own scheme of behaviour independently, so far as that may be possible, of all accepted forms. This is Rousseauism, with its faith in the child, certainly, but also with its excessive withholding of the direct influence of the teacher.

In one phase of it 'the educational renascence of the last quarter of a century' has been the liberation of the individual child from pedagogical tradition. It has contained elements of 'a return to nature' very much in the sense in which Rousseau used the words; and especially in that part of their meaning which pertains to obtaining and following personal experience rather than external authority. But Rousseau's idea was to let man alone; 'as he comes from the hands of the Author of Nature, he is good.' To which Dr. Harris has replied, 'If man had let himself alone, he would have remained the monkey that he was.' The account of human personality which is associated with the name of Professor Baldwin since the appearance of his book, 'Mental Development in the Child and the Race,' is that which finds expression in the best educational philosophy, and which is applied in the best educational practice in America. It is that the individual self and the social self are mutual factors in the growth of personality; that life is the story of contact between individual and environment; and that without the en-

April and May, 1900. It is only fair to add that in a leaflet handed to visitors and friends of the school it is said: 'It is not expected that the work done here will serve directly as a model to be followed elsewhere. Its practical character lies in the development of subject-matter which other schools, under different conditions, may use; and in presenting solutions of questions that vex every teacher, but which cannot be adequately worked out under ordinary school conditions. It is to general education what a laboratory is to business enterprises, or a nursery to a farm.'

vironment there would be no individuality. It is perhaps inevitable, however, that there should be two interpretations of the idea of individuality such as are spoken of by Dr. Harris in his letter quoted in the first chapter. These two interpretations are stated in their extreme form by R. L. Nettleship in his lectures on logic : [1]

> The 'individuality' of a thing is that which makes it what it is, its complete nature, that which you would state if you were able to define it. A 'great individuality' is a person in whom the universal humanity has reached a very high degree of development or differentiation ; one who concentrates in himself a great deal of human nature ; a person, therefore, of many sides, who is very 'representative' and touches others at innumerable points. On the other hand, the word 'individual' has also associations of the very opposite kind. If we look at the universal as a whole, formed by the composition of elements, and if we break it up into these elements, we arrive at last at elements incapable of further division, or ἄτομα. These ultimate atoms are, in this sense, individuals, but . . . *these* individuals contain the minimum of qualification or character. . . . Thus the word 'individual' is applied at opposite poles, and signifies both the greatest and the least amount of character or 'individuality.'

And elsewhere : [2]

> The difficulty is to keep between the two extremes, as Aristotle might say, that of being nothing because one has only *one* centre, and that of being nothing because one has *no* centre ; death by stagnation and death by dissipation. . . . Practically the important thing seems to be that one should try to be the *growing* centre of a *growing* circumference, so that while one is always ready to change one's individuality without fear of losing it, one should always carry the individuality that one has so far made into each new environment.

[1] *Philosophical Lectures and Remains*, vol. i. pp. 160–1.
[2] *Ib.* pp. 37–8, in a short section entitled 'Individuality.'

The problem which has occupied the preceding chapters has been: To find in the individual child the centre of gravity of curriculum and teaching method without destroying either school curriculum or collective teaching. Now one turns to a somewhat different question: What do American educators accept as the true view of individuality, and how do they endeavour to relate it to the moral and social aim which is fundamental in education?

The type of individuality at which American school discipline in the long run aims is one which shall prepare the child for community life. From this point of view each nation needs to make a study of its own children on the one hand, and of its social and political foundations on the other, before it can attempt to dogmatise upon what shall be essential elements in the moral aim of its schools, and how they are to be incorporated in its school discipline. Current philosophy (both in the academic and in the more popular sense) and public sentiment upon morals and religion, both have their influence; but the child and the society into which he is born are the principal consideration. That the child and society tend to harmonise has been briefly illustrated in the first few pages of this essay; it is implied in the whole system of thought which gathers round the evolutionary philosophy, and is to a large extent the meaning of such words and phrases as 'solidarity,' 'race-unity,' 'the psychology of peoples.' All tend to 'partake of the common life.' One should speak, therefore, of the moral aim in American education, and the way in which it embodies the principle of individuality—an undoubted American demand—with some picture before one's mind of the type of society and the type of child in question.

The peculiar conditions of American society are so well known that they only need be spoken of in the briefest way. An ever-present and ever-pressing problem is, How to build up into one nation the heterogeneous elements which make up the population? How to create in the children of ignorant and often socially disaffected immigrants the feeling of nationality and the readiness to rise to the duties of citizenship? Conditions such as these must always exert a shaping influence upon a nation's educational philosophy; and it is probably in no small measure due to the pressure of this greatest of American problems that so much stress is laid upon the development of the social consciousness. With this brief reference one must pass to the second factor in deciding upon the moral aim and method of the school, namely, the child. Here the 'American,' as distinguished from the foreign-born, child must necessarily be taken as our standard or norm.

The American child is an interesting combination. Two of the hackneyed terms expressive of the psychologist's view of him are 'imitativeness' and 'suggestibility.' One meets with them constantly. And this little piece of psychology, picked up in the college lecture-room and in sundry conversations, has important bearings upon the problem of American individuality and its development. There are some undoubted instances both in the kindergarten and in the primary grades of over-stimulated imitativeness and suggestibility; of a too highly developed self-consciousness in which these are, if not the only, the dominating factors. One of two resulting evils is possible, and in certain cases traceable. There may be over-stimulated self-consciousness, yielding excitement and arresting rather than furthering the child's true growth—this is noticeable in some kindergartens;

or there may be an unpleasing precociousness of expression without natural feeling or real thought behind it—this is noticeable in the reading lessons of some schools, and was, none the less severely because humorously, criticised by Dr. Rice in his book on the 'Public School System of the United States.'[1]

Yet there is in the average American child a peculiar elasticity which unites itself with and is the active phase of his equally marked impressibility. There is a good deal of the knack of being there without being in the way in the American boy or girl. More than once in a public park the writer had experience of this; times when it seemed that a child was running or dodging heedlessly, and that a collision was inevitable, a sudden turn on the child's part made mock of one's defensive attitude. The English child has more inertia—is more slowly stirred and less easily diverted; the American child has more elasticity, and is more highly strung. An account given by Professor Seeley, of the State Normal School, Trenton, New Jersey,[2] of the remarks of Dr. Bertram, of Berlin, when visiting America in 1893, confirms this impression. Dr. Bertram having spoken of the superior discipline characterising American education, Professor Seeley asked him what he meant by discipline.

[1] In this tragical manner the story was read through by the various members of the class. When the words, 'She stopped to listen,' had been read, the pupil placed herself in a listening attitude, by throwing her head outward and forward, in which attitude she remained for fully six or seven seconds. One of the pupils read the words, 'Katie stood wondering,' and proceeded to the next sentence before fully acting her part. But the teacher checked her with the words, 'You didn't stand wondering. Stand wondering, Annie!' p. 181.

[2] *New York Teachers' Monographs*, Class Management Number, March 1900.

His reply, which I shall give in my own words, opened my eyes to a larger view of the subject of discipline than I had heretofore had, and led me to feel that we are working on right lines in this matter. He spoke of the perfect self-command of the pupils that he had witnessed in schools that he had visited, notably, I remember, of the students in the New York Normal College. He thought that our children are being taught self-control in the school, and this power shows itself in a remarkable degree in life. He was at the Exposition on 'Chicago Day,' when 750,000 people passed through the gates. He witnessed the great crowds carried by the Illinois Central Railroad, by the cable cars, by the elevated trains, 'And yet,' said he, 'there was not a single jam that I noticed during the whole day.' 'Why,' he further added, 'with us, if four or five people wanted to get upon a street car there would be a jam.' Doubtless there are other factors that have contributed to this result which Dr. Bertram did not take into account. Our theory of government . . . has a great deal to do in developing self-control. The recognition of social equality would be another factor. . . . Perhaps most of all is the absence of paternalism in our order of things in America. Here every man is expected to take care of himself or take the consequences.

According to this view it is largely a matter of social and national environment rather than of discipline in the narrower sense. But so far as the school does contribute to it, we are left with one or two broad questions which are of cardinal importance.

Many statements might be quoted from the pens of American educators to show that the social or 'representative' view of individuality is the one that is more and more generally accepted. In a discussion at the meeting of superintendents, Chicago, February 27, 1900, Dr. Harris, speaking on the present status of education, said, 'Individuality grows through the appropriation or assimilation of other individuality'; and Miss Blow, in

a pamphlet entitled, 'What is Froebel's Generative Thought?' speaks of education as implying the power to enter into communion with other minds. In a reprint in pamphlet form of articles from 'The School Journal' (New York), under the title, 'Educational Creeds of the Nineteenth Century,' there is a very clear statement of the attitude of the American school towards the 'two ideals,' the individualistic and the socialistic, by Professor John Dewey, of Chicago.[1] Taken in conjunction with Professor Dewey's book, 'The School and Society,' we have a statement of school aims which makes one believe that, when it has passed through its more purely experimental stage, the Chicago University Elementary School will work out conclusions of great value to education everywhere.

I believe that education is a regulation of the process of coming to share in the social consciousness; and that the adjustment of individual activity on the basis of this social consciousness is the only sure method of social reconstruction. I believe that this conception has due regard for both the individualistic and socialistic ideals. It is duly individual because it recognises the formation of a certain character as the only basis of right living. It is socialistic because it recognises that this right character is not to be formed by merely individual precept, example, or exhortation, but rather by the influence of a certain form of institutional or community life upon the individual, and that the social organism through the school, as its organ, may determine ethical results. I believe that in the ideal school we have the reconciliation of the individualistic and the institutional ideals.

'As the century closes,' said Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, in a recent address before the Department of

[1] A very able contribution to the same study, from an English point of view, is from Mr. T. G. Rooper, H.M.I., of Southampton.—*Educational Creeds*, &c., pp. 112–125.

Superintendence of the National Educational Association, 'the soundest educational philosophy the world over teaches that the individual alone is nothing, but that the individual as a member of society and of a race is everything.'

A word needs to be said as to the view taken of the society into which the child is born by those constituting that society and representing it to the child. The old view of the universe as a whole, and of man as part of it, was that of a complex mechanism. The nearest simile to explain the world, society, and ultimately the individual man himself (for man is a microcosm, and the view he takes of the world and of society is his view of himself writ large), was that of the watch composed of parts ingeniously contrived to subserve their purpose. God was the great designer; man and society were parts of the machine. The social and political philosophy of Hobbes and Locke is founded upon this view of society; it is something put together by agreement or contract, demanding obedience in virtue of that contract. Rousseau's 'Contrat Social' and the smashing of the social machinery which was thought to be proceeding at the time of the French Revolution were further utterances each in its way of the same view of society.

The newer conception of human society is not that of a mechanism, but an organism. Biology furnishes our analogies, not machinery. Society is a result of growth, a growth which affects and permeates all its parts. Hence the life of the individual in society is one of reciprocal relationship, the relation of vital part to a living whole. The individual is no less sacred to himself and to society, but rather more so when their mutual relation is so defined. We do not merely start from the individual as our centre and study an environing

society which we speak of as *his* social conditions or circumstances, but also from a view of the society which includes him as one of its living members. The individual is exalted by this view. It is not that society's first duty is to preserve and perfect him, though that is admittedly the function of every well-knit organism towards its several parts ; but more fundamentally, and this is the purport of a right moral training, it is for the individual, as a conscious and largely self-directive unit in the great social whole, to understand and actively respond to his relations to this larger whole. There are two chief processes which tend to the progress of the Leviathan, humanity, and the healing of its ills. One consists in what society does, sectionally or collectively, for the toning up of its parts ; this is the function of law, government, and philanthropy. The other is education in its variety of forms, which aims to fit the individual parts for their service in the corporate whole. The play of consciousness and of separate wills spoils to some extent the analogy of an organism as furnishing any complete idea of man's relation to society ; hence a further step is taken by American educational writers to express this relation, and one in virtue of which the school life is made to participate in no small degree in the spirit of the institutional life which surrounds it.

Between society as a whole and the individual there are mediating instruments in the form of institutions representing typical activities. It is through these that the child is led to realise his relations to the whole. Such are the family, civil or industrial society, the State, the Church, and, in all well-organised communities, the school, which in a sense reflects, or should reflect, the life and spirit of them all. In society as an organism

the individual member lives and has his being; institutions are the expression, but, at the same time, the increase of this life. In short, the prevailing influence is that of Froebel, not that of Rousseau.

In very brief, what are the ways in which this ideal is finding expression in American schools? In the first place, the thought is taking possession of the American class-room and lecture-hall that the pursuit of learning and the whole spirit of the life of the school is co-operative, certainly not competitive. With regard to the intellectual life of the class, this is the view put forward in the article by Dr. Harris on the class recitation quoted in the fourth chapter. That there is also an ethical side to this spirit of co-operation is evident.

> The best recitation is that which puts the pupil in the unselfish attitude of helping his classmates to understand, appreciate, and enjoy the lesson.
>
> Much that is unsubstantial and valueless has been written upon the subject of moral instruction in the school, as though morals could be taught like spelling or geography, and were not rather to be lived and practised. The newer and, as I believe, better conception is that the individual, however circumspect he may be when considered apart from his fellows, only proves his real moral worth when he shows his ability to combine with others and to do well his part in any community, whether it be the home, the school, or the social order of which he is a part. This is the spirit of the kindergarten, and is equally desirable in every grade. No teacher is likely to be rated as strong in the future who is not able to see the bearing of this principle and to shape his course accordingly.

These words are quoted from the report of the superintendent of Brookline,[1] Massachusetts, for 1898,

[1] Mr. S. T. Dutton, author of *Social Education*, and now Professor of School Management and Administration, at Teachers College, New York.

and have reference to efforts made during the year to foster the social life of the schools. A similar idea is embodied in the various forms of pupil government. Order, cleanliness, and good feeling are felt by the pupils to be in their collective keeping, and they are organised in ways which enable them to co-operate to secure these ends.[1] Another way in which a social rather than a more narrowly individual life is encouraged is by different kinds of group work, in which the children work in groups or sets of from two to six, or even more if the nature of the work permits of it. A further method is one which might be described as co-operative study, differing from the co-operative recitation in its greater voluntariness. The children of a grade will contribute each their specimen to a class museum, or will record on the blackboard, with date attached, their observations of signs of spring. One other way that might be mentioned is the co-operation of the members of a grade in giving on certain days of the year (especially on Thanksgiving Day and Christmas Day) for the relief of the poor, many of the gifts finding their way to the homes of the poorer scholars. Sometimes this desire to make a gift takes the pleasing form of each member of a grade contributing a sample of his or her best work in composition to a manuscript volume, which, after being bound and illuminated by themselves, is presented to the teacher of the class or principal of the school. One inscription ran, 'To Miss ——, this book is affectionately dedicated by the pupils of the F room (6th), —— School.' Many of the intervals of relaxation in the lower grades are devoted to forms of social play specially designed to give the children an interest in each other, such as know-

[1] See references to the 'school-city,' and other forms of school organisation and group work in *Report on Moral Education in American Schools.*

ing each other's voices, guessing each other's puzzles, listening to each other's stories, read perhaps the night before and told, often exceedingly well, to the whole grade. The purpose is to bring all into the circle so that there shall be 'no danger of any child feeling lost,' and so to avoid the 'boarding-school' experience, pithily described by the supervisor of primary grades at Washington, of its 'taking the child six months to find himself, and to be sure that it is not all a dream, a rotating machinery in which he moves passively, but is not alive to what he is, or where he is, and still less to *why* anything is.' To all these may be added the more or less obvious fact, but one which will depend for its influence greatly upon the teacher's own appreciation and conscious use of it, that the school by its very nature deals with children from the side of the things in which they are alike, rather than the things in which they differ. If this thought lives in the teacher's mind side by side with the consciousness of manifold individualities, the teacher herself becomes a unifying centre, a reservoir of the social consciousness of her class, and by her very presence with them she will have an influence in enabling all to 'partake of the common life.'

But though all this is to be commended, and whilst it is good that the social consciousness should be played off against our unsocial instincts, it is well to bear in mind that a too pronounced social consciousness may tend to defeat the very educational aims which we have been considering. This is fully realised by many American writers on education, and has been expressed by Dr. James Ward in his well-known article on 'Education Values,' when he is presenting the views of the English educational theorists: 'The individual must be fitted for, without being sacrificed to the society of which he is not

merely a member, but a unit.' Undoubtedly one part of education is to train the social self, but its aim is also to strengthen personal insight and will. With the rapid spread of organisation both in politics and commerce this becomes an important part of the educator's task. Committees, it has been said, have no conscience; in a time of the prevalence of the political caucus and coterie, of city 'bossism,' and certain forms of trade combination and commercial influence, the educator needs to balance his endeavour to arouse the willingness to work, learn, and play in groups with an equal endeavour to keep the pupil's personality free. 'The worst egotism,' says Bishop Spalding, 'is not individual, but corporate.' Such corporate egotism it is evidently the duty of the individual to resist, and education should lay the foundations for such resistance. Advancing education, especially that of the university, corrects in a great degree the half-measures and the defects of earlier training by widening the intellectual horizon. But the schools are the people's university. Hence the need of saying that membership of society and of the race is in itself scarcely more complete as a definition of individuality, for the guidance of school organisers and administrators, than is the other partial view of individuality to which it is opposed. Individuality is largely a question of original 'make up.' And the development of individuality must remain quite as much a matter of growth along the lines of this original endowment as a process of the absorption of other individualities. In R. L. Nettleship's words, 'the important thing seems to be that one should try to be the *growing* centre of a *growing* circumference.'

CHAPTER IX

INDIVIDUALITY IN THE KINDERGARTEN [1]

'The tools of the teacher are the eye-languages.'

SIGHT precedes speech; experience utterance. A casual examination of the gifts and materials for use in occupations presents this as one of the first and simplest messages of the kindergarten. These 'tools of the teacher' are akin to the eye-languages. And the eye is the organ of individuality. For, whereas we can hear for another and pass on the exact words, we cannot see for another and pass on the picture. 'The teacher,' says Thring, 'will work for the picture.'

More generally, the aim of the kindergarten may be said to be knowledge of things rather than knowledge about things. Whence, wherever the kindergarten influence has crept upwards into the elementary school, we find real applications of the principle 'concrete before abstract,' and knowledge which is based upon experience precedes knowledge derived from books. This, says

[1] Kindergartens are authorised by general law in fourteen States. In 1897–98 there were public kindergartens in 189 out of the 626 cities of 8,000 population and over. The number of separate kindergartens supported in these cities by public funds was 1,365; through the Washington bureau information was obtained concerning 2,998 private kindergartens, and Dr. Harris estimates that there were at least 500 more in existence, and thinks that 'the actual number of pupils enrolled in kindergartens in the United States in 1897–98 must have exceeded 200,000.'—*Monograph on Elementary Education.*

Madame Kraus-Boelte, a pupil and friend of Froebel's widow, who is described as being to-day the leading representative in America of the Froebel tradition,[1] is a kind of teaching that never fails to produce in the learner an eagerness to know and to do. 'The expression *intuitive teaching* is the equivalent of what the Germans call *Anschauungsunterricht*, which is somewhat translated, *teaching by inspection or sight.* These expressions are, however, improper, for the intuition of things is acquired by the other senses as well as by sight. Many had based their systems of education on the principle of observation by the senses. But Froebel introduced into his method "the spirit of action." In his system the child observes and gives his own account of his observations, and, moreover, he imitates, works, combines, creates. The school is no longer a place where a master teaches *ex cathedra* pupils who are expected to believe and repeat his phrases. It is a medium in which the child blossoms out freely according to the laws of his nature. . . . He learns to become acquainted with things, to draw them, to represent them, to construct them, and he is incessantly occupied in finding new combinations and applications of them.' These words may be accepted as a statement of the foundation principle of the kindergarten as it exists in America to-day. 'Knowledge is food, but creation is life.' As is well known, the infant school or kindergarten training in America consists of the gifts, occupations, games (with and without music), nature study (as far as possible in the open air, e.g. in gardening or wild flower gathering), and morning talks; without, that is, any formal reading, writing, or arithmetic.

[1] *Monograph on the Kindergarten*, written by Miss Blow for the American Educational Exhibit at Paris. The kindergarten is referred to in this chapter only from the point of view of the present report.

Nowhere has Froebel found more sympathetic interpreters than in America—a fact which is but the fulfilment of his own anticipation that America would be the country in which his ideas would find the fullest realisation. One after another of the great names amongst American educationists stands for championship of the kindergarten as a school, and of the Froebelian principles as a large contribution to, if not a starting-point in, educational philosophy. Dr. W. T. Harris established in St. Louis the first kindergartens in America which became permanently recognised as part of a public school system ; Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, is an open advocate and friend of the kindergarten ; many well-known superintendents are doing much to extend the principles of the kindergarten throughout the primary grades of the elementary school ; in Washington (D.C.), Dayton (Ohio), and Minneapolis (Minnesota), this was particularly traceable. Primary grade supervisors are more and more alive to the value of a kindergarten spirit, and, where possible, a kindergarten training, in the teachers of their grades—one might instance St. Paul, Minnesota, in this respect ; and the Canadian educator who is by far the best known throughout the United States is Inspector J. L. Hughes, of Toronto, whose book on ' Froebel's Educational Laws for all Teachers ' is probably the best and crispest statement of Froebelian educational philosophy that has been published in English. Miss Blow's books in the same series (The International Education Series) are widely known amongst kindergartners in this country ; and Miss Harrison's books are deservedly popular and have been many times reprinted.[1]

[1] Two are especially valuable : *A Study of Child Nature* and *Two Children of the Foothills*, as bringing the kindergarten principles out of the region of theory and down to the everyday level of the home.

'The law of self-activity,' as Mr. Hughes asserts, 'is now recognised as fundamental by all educational leaders.' The answer to the question, What is understood by the law of self-activity? will also be an answer to the question, How does the kindergarten educator conceive of individuality and seek to develope it? Another sentence from Mr. Hughes's book points out the direction in which this answer is to be sought: 'No subject is truly educative till it enlarges or enriches the selfhood.' In this connection a word has been taken over from Froebel, which he seems to have coined for his own purposes, namely, *Gliedganzes* (or member-whole). This word means something more to the American exponent of the aims of the kindergarten than individuality through membership of the social whole; it implies what according to the best interpreters follows from this, namely, individuality through participation in the life of the whole. It is membership in the sense of the enlargement rather than of the subordination of the individual; and harmonises with the doctrine of individuality described in the preceding chapter. Whilst, therefore, 'the kindergarten is the free republic of childhood,' observation of American kindergartens, both public and private, everywhere reminds the visitor that it is not so much the individualistic as the community aspect of the republic which is intended to prevail. But it is just here that the one and only important division of opinion amongst American interpreters of the kindergarten makes its appearance. The two schools, if they may be so called, differ in the balance they hold between the claims of the individual as a human unit with tastes, aptitudes, and propensities, and society with its various forms of institutional life in the midst of which he lives. These two interpretations

appeared to the writer to be roughly distinguishable by a difference of emphasis on the two parts of the word Gliedganzes, of which both would make use. Which we shall judge to be right will depend largely upon our individual observation and interpretation of child-nature. To the one school individuality means the following out by the child of his peculiar bent, or of the traditional games and domestic occupations, so as to enable him to realise himself as a unit amongst the other units forming his social environment. Here the emphasis is laid upon *Glied*. To this phase of the problem of individuality, Dr. Harris's words correspond, when he says of the child[1]: 'In the gifts and occupations he becomes conscious of his will as a power over matter to convert it to use and make it the symbol of his ideals.' Dr. Harris, however, continues: 'But in such work he does not fully realise his spiritual sense because he does not find anything in it to make him realise the difference between his particular self and his general self. In the plays and games he becomes conscious of his social self, and there dawns the higher ideal of a self that is realised in institutions, over against the special self of the particular individual.' Here the emphasis is undoubtedly upon the second part of Froebel's word, namely, *-ganzes*. The adherents of these two points of view in America divide the field of kindergarten thought and practice, not without some advantage and strength to the cause as a whole. No one was more genial in giving welcome to new phases of kindergarten endeavour than the lady already spoken of as the most direct representative of the Froebelian tradition, Madame Kraus-Boelte. In one

[1] 'The Kindergarten Methods Contrasted with the Methods of the American Primary School.' Paper read before the National Educational Association (Kindergarten Department), July 1889.

respect, particularly, there seems to be a widening of the kindergarten horizon and an increase of its usefulness arising from a freer interpretation and use of Froebel's suggestions. Some children do not climb easily towards the ideal. They are little, awkward, domestic products to whom symbolical games and type forms of human experience are in great danger of becoming visionary. Such can only ascend to the ideal from a broad platform of the real, and even then only by very easy and concrete stages. Water does not rise above its own level except by pumping; and good hydraulics, as Canon Evan Daniel has shown in another connection, does not necessarily suggest by analogy good pedagogy. In other words, we can often raise the education only by raising the child. In order to even partially realise the ideal, we may be driven to deal plentifully with the real; and in proportion to the distance of the real condition, especially in a moral and social sense, of the child from the ideal, must be the gradualness with which our idealising progresses. In many children, if we adopt Professor James's description of the constituents of the self, the material self preponderates so greatly over the social and the spiritual self, that we must make it our starting-point. Yet in singling out for special consideration the moral aim and issue of the two theories, it is almost impossible not to feel that the view expressed by Dr. Harris is the correct one, in a larger rather than in a contradictory sense, when compared with that put forward by the leaders of the 'free play' school. Visitors to the American Educational Exhibit at the Paris Exhibition, or to the same on the occasion of its sojourn in Manchester, who noticed the illustrations there given of the interiors of kindergarten class-rooms at the school of observation and practice connected with the Philadelphia Normal

School, will have lost a large part of any feeling they may have had that such of the Froebelian games as are in common use are unnatural in kind and artificial in their appeal. Certainly, they are games *with a purpose*, but not less, in some instances decidedly more, appreciated on that account. May not the game with a purpose—especially in school which itself is supposed to indicate purpose—supply something like the same place in the child economy that the 'novel with a purpose' does in that of the adult? Do not such games also go further than the novel with a purpose generally goes, and induce there and then a series of *actions* which to some extent at least harmonise with the purpose, and hence help to strengthen a right will within the child? If the games of the kindergarten are not to be different in conception and aim from the games of the kitchen or the pavement, why fit up a school? A similar remark would apply to the occupations so far as there is any noticeable difference between the two types of kindergarten in this respect. The diverging interpretations have been more fully referred to elsewhere; here they are only introduced because of the different suggestions they offer as to the directions which the development of individuality and the furtherance of the moral aim in the initial stages of education may take—each valuable, having much in common, and the only question being, Which is fundamentally the more valuable?

There is another phase of kindergarten criticism which is also intimately bound up with the consideration of the kind of child to which it is suited, and the kind of individuality which it builds up. It is claimed that for the child of passive, reflective, 'sensory' temperament the kindergarten is excellent, as it gives him 'facility in movement and expression, and also some

degree of personal and social confidence'; but that for the same reasons it overstimulates the child of active, 'motor' temperament. Here the English Code, which asserts the suitability of kindergarten methods to all children, presents what seems to be the true view:

> The principles which underlie the system of kindergarten occupations do not cease to be applicable when a scholar quits the infant school or department. Such exercises serve as a valuable link, connecting the work of the infant school with some of those forms of technical or manual training which are now, with very great advantage, adopted in the upper classes of many good schools. A right and harmonious relation (which, says the Code of 1898, it is one of the principal objects of the kindergarten to establish)[1] between those lessons which are addressed to the memory and the understanding of a child and those manual and other exercises which call forth his active and observant powers is an object which ought to be kept steadily in view throughout all the stages of a scholar's career in a public elementary school.

Certainly the American kindergarten provides material for the memory and understanding, as well as occupation for limbs and fingers. In some instances too much memory work (not bookish, but still technical) is allowed, as when children between five and six years of age are heard to speak of 'oblate' and 'prolate' spheroids. On the other hand, one or two cases were observed in which the whirl of motor excitement was too prolonged or too intense. Yet no one need desire to see more intelligent, restrained, and physically capable children of infant school age than are to be found in the Toronto, or Boston, or Washington public kindergartens. Inspector Hughes,

[1] This clause is omitted from the instructions of 1899 and 1900, possibly to avoid confusion between what English teachers would understand by lessons addressed to the memory and the understanding, and the kindergarten pure and simple. (*Instructions to Inspectors*, *Paragraph* 11.)

of Toronto, withholds his own children from formal school lessons till they are eight or nine years of age—after leaving the kindergarten their training is continued by their mother, one of the most expert kindergartners in the whole of North America—and then when they enter the elementary school they are placed at once in the third grade. Memory and understanding are so far trained without any formal work in the three R's that they pick up these matters quickly, and maintain a strong lead in all-round capacity and information. These children have a unique opportunity of home-training, but the instance shows Mr. Hughes's absolute faith in the complete training which the kindergarten methods give, and the results only confirm this faith. This was the universal testimony of American kindergartners, both white and coloured. Quoting to one of the latter Professor Baldwin's view[1] that 'there should really be two kindergarten methods' to meet the needs of children of motor and sensory temperament, she replied: 'If the children are placed in the hands of an unskilful, undeveloped teacher, then we need not two kindergartens, but no kindergarten; but if you have the right kind of kindergarten and kindergartner, she will stimulate your little sponge and repress your little bombshell.' 'The kindergarten,' to quote another American opinion, 'promotes *all* lines of growth; the primary school continues them.' Hence Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, answering an opinion sometimes expressed that the kindergarten is an admirable thing for the children of the poor, but is not needed for the children of the well-to-do, says, 'Looking forward as I do to the next great educational problem of this country, which will be not the education of the poor, but the education of the rich,

[1] *The Story of the Mind*, p. 199.

I am forced to wonder how the children of the rich can afford to be without the advantages of the kindergarten.'

Note.—As a general note bearing upon the influence of the kindergarten on individual progress, one may quote from the report of the superintendent of the St. Louis public schools:

The kindergarten, while it nominally adds a year to the course, should, and does, give so much additional power to the child that his subsequent progress in formal school work is made more rapid and efficient thereby. In fact, where the methods of primary instruction are most rational and progressive and least mechanical, the advantages of the kindergarten work as a promoter of the educational progress of the individual child are most marked and apparent. It is only where the freedom of kindergarten education is followed by the dead mechanism of text-book instruction in its old form that the child would seem to derive little advantage from his previous training.

The present investigation, as far as it goes, bears out the idea that kindergarten education equips the child well for more rapid progress in the grades. There are a number of schools in our city to which no kindergarten is attached, and for this reason a comparison is possible. In the schools without kindergartens children are admitted at the age of six into the primary grades, in the other schools at seven. In the first-mentioned schools the children begin school work one year earlier than in the latter, and they might therefore be supposed to keep one year in advance of the others that begin the study of reading and writing one year later.

The following table shows the average ages of schools having kindergartens and of those without them, computed separately. It will be seen that by the time the children reach the fifth grade, there is no longer any material difference in the ages of the children of the two classes of schools (12 years 8 months and 12 years 9 months respectively), while in the higher grades the average age of the children that presumably

had a kindergarten education is somewhat lower than that of the classes in schools that offer no kindergarten training.

Table showing Average Age by Grades in various Classes of Schools.

	Kinder-garten		I.		II.		III.		IV.		V.		VI.		VII.		VIII.		Total	
	Yrs.	Mths.	Yrs.	Mths.	Yrs.	Mths.	Yrs.	Mths.	Yrs.	Mths.	Yrs.	Mths.	Yrs.	Mths.	Yrs.	Mths.	Yrs.	Mths.	Yrs.	Mths.
White Schools having Kindergartens	6	7	8	0	9	3	10	7	11	9	12	9	13	7	14	6	15	1	10	1
White Schools without Kindergartens	—		7	6	9	0	10	2	11	5	12	8	14	0	15	1	15	5	9	4
Coloured Schools having Kindergartens	6	7	8	10	10	4	11	6	13	1	14	3	14	9	14	9	15	7	11	3
Coloured Schools without Kindergartens	—		8	5	10	8	11	11	12	8	14	3	14	9	—		—		11	0
All Schools	6	7	8	0	9	1	10	7	11	10	12	10	13	8	14	4	15	0	10	1

The philosophy of these figures, combined with the rapid progress which is made by first-grade children new to all formal work in reading and figuring, seems to be that there is in the early stages of education a decided gain in giving the mind time to grow. The quick advance of the first-grade children does not seem to be fully accounted for in any other way. Their minds are bigger than the tasks they are set to; hence assimilation is rapid and easy.

CHAPTER X

THE RELATION BETWEEN HOME AND SCHOOL

'Some sow, and others reap. But good work knows no distinction between them.'

ONE of the greatest benefits arising from the welcome which America has given to the kindergarten has been the hold which, first, the kindergarten teachers, and, later, the teachers of the grades have been able to obtain upon the parents, and the influence which in this way has spread from the school to the home. The mothers' meetings and mothers' assemblies which are to be found both in America and in Canada are said to owe their origin entirely to the kindergarten, which is, in its original conception, very largely a mothers' movement. Admittedly, one of the chief desiderata in the training of youth is the sympathetic co-operation of all who take part in it. And so far as enlisting the sympathy of the home with the school is concerned, America doubtless gains to some extent by having so large a proportion as 93 per cent. of its city teachers women. The woman can enter the home and gain the ear of the parents in a way that a man cannot. Moreover, the mother feels freer to seek out the teacher and talk about her child if the teacher is a woman. It is a secondary result of the welcome given to Froebel's teaching, coinciding as it did in point of time with the great industrial

developments which have made so many openings for educated men, that women have so largely taken up the work of education in America. There are other causes, but this is *a* cause, and one of the chief. Hence the schoolroom is singularly open to the parent, and the home to the teacher. The gain in educational efficiency to which this good understanding gives rise is incalculable. The difference between the educational atmosphere in England and America is not to be looked for only, or to be explained by looking only, within the schoolrooms; it is an affair in which the home and the attitude of the ordinary citizen count for almost as much. The writer took every opportunity of talking to fellow-passengers on the railway and in the cars, and 'the schools' were always an acceptable topic of conversation. Education evidently is not merely a schoolmasters' and teachers' interest; it is a national interest, and every visible bond between the outside public and the inner life and workings of the school gives new reality and force to this fact. Mothers' meetings are now in some places rapidly changing to parents' meetings, as fathers are showing a practical interest in the course of their children's education. (Most readers, probably, would be able to recall from their teaching experience some of the manliest men who would have been desirous to be members of any parents' conference in connection with the schools in which their sons were being educated.) The first instance encountered of such a parents' conference was in connection with a remarkably good school, the influence of which is felt in all directions, the Ethical Culture School (Workingman's School), New York. Here monthly consultations are held between the parents and the teachers of each grade, for the purpose of comparing notes. First, the parents

assemble, and the teacher talks with them as to her general method, and the end she has in view in all her work ; then she meets the parents separately and discusses any matters that may seem necessary concerning the children individually. As the child passes from grade to grade an attentive parent has the opportunity of discussing his characteristics and personal aptitudes with a series of specialists who are living with and watching the child from day to day. In this way, as Dr. Felix Adler, the director of these schools, attests, by the time the child is fourteen or fifteen the school is able to furnish valuable advice as to the line of work the child is fitted to follow, not to speak of the enormous gain from the intelligent co-operation of home and school throughout the course. Independently of these meetings with the teachers, the Ethical Society has parents' societies for child study (mainly attended by mothers) ; the works of Froebel, Pestalozzi, and Comenius are read, and special problems discussed.

In the Annual School Report of Fall River for 1900, the superintendent writes of the good effects of this movement upon the public schools :

> I believe that the schools are making a distinct advance in securing the co-operation of parents and so in establishing the essential unity between home life and school life.
>
> . . . The wise teacher manages, if possible, to have an acquaintance with the parents of many of the children who attend her room. Nothing that the teacher can do will help her more than this. Teachers' efforts plus the parents' help are needed in every school, are needed for every child.

On the side of school-organisation the contact is maintained by means of reports with teachers' comments on the children's progress sent to the parents, and by meetings with the mothers.

Mothers' meetings, which bring the teachers and the mothers into informal and agreeable acquaintance, do more to help teachers in securing the right attitude of the children in school than all the rules that can be laid down and than all the punishments and deprivations that can be devised. The school that is wisely managed takes this large hold upon the children.

The superintendent goes on to describe the way in which this influences the child in his attitude to the school. His words illustrate the possibility of merging the need for 'discipline' in the pupil's direct interest in his work, though the language in which this is stated portrays a type of school life and procedure which is far removed from most English methods:

When he reaches school [the grammar grades are here spoken of more especially] he goes at once to the department to which he belongs, where, in conferring with teachers or classmates or in consulting the books and materials that are provided, he begins the work of the day which he enjoys as a privilege and which he by no means feels inclined to shirk as a task.

These, however, are only isolated cases, and the movement has to be spoken of as a general one. Professor Dutton, who was till the summer of 1900 superintendent of schools at Brookline, Mass., has done much to initiate and spread the movement in connection with the public schools. He organised amongst the citizens of Brookline an Education Society with various committees, dealing with such departments as art, music, public libraries, the kindergarten. His example, and his lectures at Harvard, since published under the title 'Social Education,' have called into being various similar societies in other cities. During the week that the writer

was compelled to leave Boston, in order to travel westward, the representatives of no less than a hundred such societies were to meet in Boston. Mr. Carroll, superintendent of Worcester, said that one might almost speak of a Brookline movement, as it is already customary to speak of Colonel Parker's educational innovations as the Quincy movement, the Brookline movement having as its *raison d'être* the closer interrelation of the school and the home. In a valuable summary of present day aspects of public education Mr. Carroll writes of this general movement as follows:

> The citizen and taxpayer in the larger cities is taking a personal interest in the great investment which he has made in the common school system. Outwardly, this movement appears in better school houses, well-heated, well-lighted and ventilated, models of scientific architecture; in the public library and its correlation to the public school; in skilled supervision, which is becoming, at least in Massachusetts, almost a matter of course; in the establishment of more and the development of better normal schools; in the growth of the kindergartens; in the ever increasing number of pupils availing themselves of the advantages of secondary and higher education—and so on. Naturally women are leaders in this movement. They are acting as members of school committees. With their assistance, associations of parents (mothers) for child study, neighbourhood clubs, &c., are exerting a vital influence on the school for the better, as, indeed, the school does on them. It becomes an intellectual centre for the community, and stimulates the study of domestic economy and science by mistress and maid; of economics and industrial problems by employer and employée. Thus in turn it leads to the organisation of lecture courses; the enlargement of library privileges; the holding of art exhibits; the establishment of school playgrounds (parks); of vacation schools, and scores of other devices for the benefit of young and old within the radius and radiance of its influence.

Historically speaking, there are two fairly distinguishable stages in the drawing together of home and school of late years in America. First, there were the meetings of mothers in connection with the kindergartens, especially the mission kindergartens in poor districts—such are to be found in New York, Chicago, Syracuse, and many other places. Next came the public school movement—education societies, public education associations, art leagues, neighbourhood clubs, and the like, which exist in New York, Brookline, Worcester, St. Paul, Dayton, and scores of other cities. The development of these relations has been a gradual one. For a considerable time it seemed like the irony of fate that the two great reformers, who have done the most to create the modern spirit in education, and who at the same time felt that in the home life and influence lay the real hope of children, should seem by their very success to have severed the school from the home. The 'new education' was one with which parents were not conversant, and into the spirit of which they were scarcely able to enter.

Yet with the new education of which Pestalozzi and Froebel are practically the founders, so far as the history of American education is concerned, has also come in, more gradually of course, the new educational spirit, and a growing understanding of the motive underlying their reforms. It is really in the wake of this pedagogical reform that the social and domestic has definitely made its appearance, which, if anything, was more fundamental in the minds of the original reformers than the pedagogical. In a marvellous way parents are awaking to the idea that they have something more to do with education than paying the tax which defrays its cost. The fact that they do this, on the whole,

ungrudgingly, has kept their hearts open to the deeper meanings and possibilities of education itself.

State superintendents report the formation of mothers' clubs, organised meetings of teachers and parents, an increasing interest on the part of parents in educational gatherings. In one such report [1] one reads :

> A member of the Brooklyn board of education has been instrumental in organising ten associations of parents and teachers in connection with a like number of the public schools of that city, and his ambition is to have a similar association allied with each of its public schools. The Chautauqua assembly proposes to establish a summer school for parents during the month of July in connection with the other educational work at that great centre.

During the year 1898 a National Catholic Institute for teachers was organised, which originated mothers' congresses and study clubs, and which added to its other functions the giving of practical lessons in domestic economy. Superintendent Gilbert, of Newark, New Jersey, whose own leadership in educational matters is characterised by a great amount of enlightenment and insight, said recently, that, in his own experience, more educational reforms are now coming from the homes, through the influence of organised mothers' meetings and similar movements, than from the teachers themselves. Would not Mr. Herbert Spencer, who ranks the care of offspring as the third of life's great activities for which education should, in some sense, be a training, rejoice to have heard the confident prophecy of an American teacher, speaking of the kindergarten : 'The day will yet come when it will be incorporated

[1] *The Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction*, New York, 1899.

into the education of all women.' Many young ladies are now taking a full kindergarten course of two or three years, as a form of culture and of domestic training. One of these, niece of President McKinley, answered all suggestions that she should abandon the course which she had commenced at the Chicago Kindergarten Training College, and enter into society life, by saying that she should have all her life for social engagements, but that her years of preparation and training were necessarily few.

The Home Influence of the Kindergarten.

The college just named has the honour of having initiated what may be called the kindergarten extension movement in America. 'Whoever has studied the writings of Froebel knows that the education of mothers was one of the most important features of his endeavour. Practically, however, the work in this direction amounted to very little, until a mothers' department was established in that unique institution, the Chicago Kindergarten College . . . unique because it has consciously attempted the transformation of the girls' college into a school for motherhood.'[1] Much time was spent at this college and in the study of its methods, Chicago being the place where it became imperative to face the problem of the two interpretations of the kindergarten, already referred to. The story of the origin of the mothers' department is interesting, as it illustrates the process, almost of contagion, by which educational progress comes about in America. The present director of the Chicago Kindergarten College, who has gained her experience as an organiser as president for twenty-

[1] *Paris Monograph on Kindergarten Education* (1900), by Miss Blow, p. 43.

three years of the Women's Baptist Home Missions Society, was greatly impressed and helped by a lesson which she heard Miss Harrison, the principal, giving to a class of children. She felt it was just what she needed for her own child. Accordingly, she got together a first meeting of mothers in connection with the church she attended. Gradually mothers' classes were seen to be an almost essential adjunct to the kindergarten; some four thousand mothers have attended such classes at this college alone; and correspondence classes have been formed for those at a distance. The mothers' session is now inaugurated year by year by a Convocation of Mothers, at which some of the best educators in the country give papers or addresses; the convocation lasting for three days.[1]

At the Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, a mothers' course of two hours a week for two years is planned upon the following lines:

LESSONS GIVEN DURING THE COURSE

THEORY

(Based on the Mutter und Kose-Lieder)

The instinct of activity, and how to meet it.
First experiences and what they mean to the child.
Processes in growth.
The child's relation to animals and the outside world.
How the child may attain true freedom.
The law of compensation.
First steps in thinking.
How to train the senses.
Law and order.
The home.
The beginnings of language.
Working and doing.
Family life.
The beginning of number.
The development of the musical nature.

[1] For syllabus of the mothers' classes, and programme of one of these annual convocations, see Appendix F.

The value of each individual.
The mother's love.
The father's part.
The instinct of imitation and its value.
God's relationship to the child.
Study of Froebel's song, 'Retrospection.'

PRACTICE

Practical Work in Gifts, Games, Occupations, and Stories

First Gift; activity, colour, and form.
Plays and Songs.
Use of Sand and Clay.
Simple Rhymes and Fingerplays.
Use of Building Blocks.
Second Gift; simple games.
Wooden beads; form, number, colour.
Typical stories for young children.
Paper cutting and tearing.
How to celebrate Thanksgiving Day, Christmas, Washington's Birthday, and Easter.

There is also an evening class arranged for nurses, teachers, and others who are employed during the day and who wish to become familiar with kindergarten methods and the use of kindergarten materials. At this class the subjects taken up are the songs, games, gifts, stories, and occupations of the kindergarten. The method followed is that which has been found most helpful to those who cannot go deeply into kindergarten study. The course begins in the fall and continues through two terms, two evenings each week.

Each of the Toronto kindergartens has its associated mothers' or parents' meeting. 'Probably,' said Inspector Hughes, 'we shall never have mothers' meetings again, but parents' meetings.' The best parents' meetings are said to be on the lines of child study, especially with regard to the influences which tend to create right social habits.

The Home Interest and the Public Elementary Schools.

The more general movement is upon similar lines. As Miss Brooks, the supervisor of primary grades in St. Paul, Minnesota, said in course of conversation, 'The teacher is the helper of the parent. Both need to be agreed as to what they want the child to do.' To meet the necessity for mutual confidence and help there are mothers' clubs in a great number of the St. Paul schools, at the meetings of which all the teachers are present; phases of child life and child training are discussed, or lectures may be given by physicians and others. In Cincinnati each ward or district has its school; the parents and citizens of a district take a pride in their own school to the extent of co-operating with the teachers to provide pictures and other additions to the school life and comfort. There are monthly meetings, attended, as the principal of the sixth district school stated, by some forty or fifty mothers, with a lady from the ward as president, and one of the teachers as secretary. Similarly at Dayton, Ohio, there is a mothers' club in every district, which keeps in touch with the kindergarten and general school work. The same kind of thing takes place in connection with coloured schools, as at Washington, and nowhere is the success more striking, especially in the educative influence the mothers' meetings have with regard to home discipline and training.

Addressing the National Educational Association in July 1898, the Principal of the Woman's Department, Carleton College, Minnesota, spoke upon women's clubs as an educational factor. 'Through these three ideas—of the value of the individual mind, of organisation, and of the responsibility of every individual for the welfare

of every other, has it come about that, by the most conservative estimate, 160,000 women are enrolled in clubs.' These clubs are not exactly identical with the mothers' clubs and classes connected with the schools, though it is one of their aims to foster such classes. To self-education on literary, sociological, and artistic lines, and to efforts to extend library facilities throughout the different States, direct work for the schools is added as in many ways the most important part of their endeavour.

'They are decorating schoolrooms and giving to the schools reproductions of the masterpieces of art in pictures, casts, and portfolios of photographs. They lend fine pictures to homes, admit school children free to art exhibitions. Such work as that of the Minneapolis Improvement League, which has given to twenty-five schoolrooms valuable pictures as prizes for the cultivation of flowers, speaks for itself. The school art leagues indicate another form of result from æsthetic development. Outdoor art and village improvement work for children is another field worked by the clubs. . . . The civic work for children in New York, Philadelphia, and in many large cities; the placards, enjoining care for the beauty and cleanliness of the town, of the Minnesota schoolrooms, emphasised as they are in language lessons; the Rochester, N.Y., prize questions on the natural, architectural, and possible beauties of their city, are educational straws of value. . . . That 160,000 thoughtful women are considering the needs of our schools is a promising indication.'[1]

The work and influence of the Public Education Association of New York, and to a large extent of the Civic Federation of Chicago, are upon the same lines

[1] From the *Report of the U.S. Commissioner of Education*, 1897–98; chapter on the 'Status of Woman from the Educational and Industrial Standpoint.'

as those just described. The fifth annual Report of the New York Association (to October 1899) states:

> The main purpose of this Association, as expressed in its constitution, is to stimulate public interest in the common schools. Five years ago New York, as a whole, took little interest in its schools. To-day it takes a great deal, and although we do not by any means arrogate to ourselves all the credit for this fact, we know that we have done our share toward making it a fact, and that this has not been a discouragingly small share.

Amongst the activities of the Association are to be noted a recognition and support of the claims of the teachers of the city to higher and better regulated rates of salary; the discussion of such proposals as that of a State Industrial School for Girls; advocating the laying out of a small new park near to one of the schools; protesting against the use of an old skating rink building as a school; successful petitioning for special classes in common schools for defective children; school visitation; providing pictures and casts for some of the schools; and obtaining the permission of the School Board to open certain school buildings for children's evening clubs. As to the last point, the committee of the Association which had it in hand is now extinct, as the matter has been taken up by the School Board. Several school-buildings are opened in the evening for the use of boys, girls, and parents; a joint committee, consisting of the old Association committee and the interested members of the Board, having the oversight. Parents' meetings are held in some of the schools thus opened; and the general aim of the committee is to make the public school a social centre for parents and children.

A State may have its annual Mothers' Congress, as Michigan does. The president of the 1899 gathering of the Congress of this State, Miss Harriet Marsh, principal of a school in Detroit, spoke of the mother as the one who must aid the teacher in determining such matters as the amount of study that the pupil should do out of school. Physical culture in the home, children's literature, reform and protection, were amongst the topics discussed at the Congress. There is also a National Congress of Mothers, composed of delegates from each of the States, and also of delegates from Canada. The fourth National Congress was held in 1900 at Des Moines, Iowa, May 21 to 25, at which it was 'expected that thousands of persons from Iowa alone' would attend, as during the past year in over eighty counties of the State mothers' clubs had been organised. The public schools were closed to permit teachers to attend, the whole State being 'aroused to the importance of this Congress.' The programme included child study in its possibilities for boys, as the main subject, to be 'treated from the physical, intellectual, and spiritual standpoints'; and, in addition, the right education of women, the training of young children, the child-saving problem in its various aspects, the 'ideal education,' and the benefits to be derived from parents' organisations.

One great result of all these efforts is the increased interest which parents take in the actual school life of their children. The constructive work done at home in connection with school lessons which has already been noticed as a feature of the work at Minneapolis has this very pleasing phase, namely, the help which the parents give to the children in working out their ideas, the

children's home-life being thereby enriched, in addition to the enhanced value and interest given to the school work. Dr. Boone, author of a well-known history of education in the United States, and now superintendent of schools at Cincinnati, traces to the principles of Froebel the fact that the schools in many places take willing cognisance of anything that the child does at home, and even allow credit for it in estimating the child's position. 'There are children who do not at first take well to the formal school-work, who yet can do other things and take pride in doing them. The great effect is the moral one of encouraging the child to do his best, of whatever nature it may be; a secondary effect is that, encouraged in this way, the child comes to the more formal work with better heart and more quickly masters it.' Some of the reasons that are assigned for giving home work after the second or third school year are shown in an extract taken from a letter addressed to school principals by Superintendent Brooks, of Philadelphia, the most English of American cities (Appendix G).

From the southern city of Atlanta, Georgia, the superintendent kindly sent the following information, as part of his answer to questions as to methods employed in large classes for bringing the teacher into touch with individual scholars:

> Under this head mention must be made of the 'mothers' day'—an afternoon when all the mothers are invited to the school, where the principal, with her corps of assistants, is in waiting. It is social in nature, but combines with it the invaluable aid to the teacher of hearing the mother's side of the boy's character. . . . Report cards are sent to parents monthly.

Mr. R. H. Webster, superintendent of San Francisco, wrote in answer to the same questions :

Nothing aside from visits of teachers at parents' homes.
Also to some extent through the medium of mothers' meetings held monthly at the schools.

The principal of School No. 5, New York, supplied the writer with the following details of the methods employed in that city for maintaining a sympathetic contact between home and school. Printed slips are attached to exceptionally unsatisfactory home-work or class-work, and sent with it to the parents for their inspection, as follows :

This work is below the average of the class.
Please examine and return to the school with your signature.

Respectfully,

_____.

Such slips as the following speak for themselves :

Please send _____ at 8.30 A.M. and at 12.30 P.M. to avoid future lateness.

PUBLIC SCHOOL 5.

Your _____ has been absent _____ days. Please have _____ attend school regularly in order to keep _____ place in _____ class.

Yours truly,

_____,
Principal.

Monthly report forms, signed by the principal,

countersigned by the parent, and filed at the school, are sent out from the schools, as follows :

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

OFFICE : 146 GRAND STREET,
NEW YORK.

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO._____NEW YORK.

_____, 1

Mr._____

Dear_____

During the past month your_____
_____of class _____has been deficient in the following particulars :

_____
_____
_____
_____

_____
Principal.

_____
Parent.

Hon. Emma F. Bates, State superintendent of public instruction, North Dakota, writes to the Bureau at Washington :

The superintendent understands that in order to secure the highest educational results in children, parents must be in intelligent co-operation with all efforts to improve the pupils. Hence, June 26, 1896, was designated as parents' day, to be observed throughout the State.

The exercises upon that day consisted of select songs, recitations, essays, dialogues bearing upon home life, its beauties and duties, the child in the home, the mother, the father, the family. . . . The home is the unit of government, and for the right education of the children of those homes our nation was established and our public school system is maintained.

In three cities visited, Cleveland, Indianapolis, and Chicago, the custom was noted of setting apart in the schools an occasional afternoon when the children of one or perhaps two grades invite their parents to the school to listen to some of their school exercises in the assembly hall.

Much attention is paid to the home reading of the children, both by books lent from the school ('supplementary readers,' which, however, in some cases are intended for class-room use only), by school libraries and school use of public libraries, and by the Chautauquan plan which is very much like that of the English National Home Reading Union, whose work is finding rapidly increasing acceptance with our Board of Education and with local school boards. Some particularly interesting references to the promotion of home reading as a form of 'school extension' are to be found in the report of the American Committee of Rural Schools, 1895–97.

The spirit of much that has been said in this chapter is admirably summed up by Professor Dewey in 'The School and Society':

From the standpoint of the child, the great waste in the school comes from his inability to utilise the experiences he gets outside the school in any complete and free way within the school itself; while, on the other hand, he is unable to apply in daily life what he is learning at school. This is the

isolation of the school—its isolation from life. . . . The only way to unite the parts of the [school] system is to unite each to life.

Illustrating this point, Professor Dewey has two simple charts; the first showing the school as the centre of a fourfold group of interests, the home, surrounding nature, business, and scholarship. There is action and reaction between the school and each of these. Referring to the second of his charts, which works out the same group of interests more fully, Professor Dewey says: 'The object of these forms of practice in the school is not found chiefly in themselves, or in the technical skill of cooks, seamstresses, carpenters and masons, but in their connection, on the social side, with the life without,' having its centre in the home. 'The child can carry over what he learns in the home and utilise it in the school; and the things learned in the school he applies at home.' [1]

School Art Leagues.

One or two special phases of the movement to draw more closely together the interests of school and home must be briefly mentioned. Art Committees and Art Leagues have been spoken of as one phase of the Brookline movement. Worcester was one of the cities where the operation of such a league was traced. Originally consisting of a central league of a dozen members, comprising the superintendent and two members of the board with nine laymen, whose duty was to use money, voluntarily subscribed for the purpose, in the purchase of the best pictures, the movement has spread throughout the city and infected individual schools. In one school having a poor building and situated in a poor

[1] *The School and Society*, pp. 86, 89, 95, 97.

district, the principal announced a meeting of parents and raised 125 dollars (£25) for pictures and school decoration. Toronto is doing similar work on a very satisfactory scale. This city has seventeen Art Leagues, with an average of a hundred members in each, each one of which makes itself responsible for the artistic construction and decoration of one school. The minimum subscription is a quarter of a dollar (one shilling) yearly. There is a central advisory board, consisting of six representatives from the Toronto Guild of Civic Art, and the same number from the Ontario Society of Artists, three representatives of the Women's Art Association of Canada, with the Minister of Education, the Mayor of Toronto, and other ex-officio members; Mr. J. L. Hughes being the chairman. A pamphlet, compiled by this board and published by the Education Department of Ontario, sets forth the main principles of the league, the keystone of which is 'the recognition of the educational value of good surroundings for our children,' under the four chief headings—health, architecture, colour, pictures and casts. 'If art,' said the supervisor of this subject in the schools, 'simply meant the making of beautiful pictures, it would not be much; but it is the thought which we get in the art work which is valuable. In the writing and all the work done in the school we look to the beauty as well as to the truth of the work.' The method of art teaching in the schools is by creating an interest in beautiful things, and so working 'from suggestion rather than copies.'[1] An Art

[1] The drawing course, as described by this lady, is interesting. By way of preamble, it may be said that the supervisor would like to begin with brush work, but not having the materials, the commencement is made with charcoal and crayons. 'The first thing we do is to say, Draw a picture; in this way we find what is their first idea, what the children are interested in. Then, Make a picture of something you think beautiful,

League meeting was attended by the writer in one of these schools, the room itself in its colouring and appropriate decoration speaking eloquently of the value of the efforts of 'citizens and neighbours.' Detroit, Michigan, is another city where, under the leadership of the art supervisor, a great deal is being done by public effort to acquaint school children with good painting, sculpture and architecture. The preference of the children for good pictures is quite noticeable; and a number of those who had been branded as incorrigibles are found to take delight in art work. The expenditure of money upon the improvement of the school surroundings is soon repaid in the better spirit of the children and the greater efficiency of the work. Remembering the extent to which the American school aims at individuality, in this respect following largely the initiative of the home, and at the same time the need for direction and guidance which is common to the children of all nations, the amount of influence for which an American educator depends upon school environment and organisation is very large as compared with that which he seeks to exert by direct prescription. 'The opposition between the freedom of the child and the direction of the child is bridged over by making the conditions in the surroundings of the children as right as possible.'

Detroit has an interesting scheme whereby a set of exceptionally good pictures is passed round from school to school in groups of three, which remain two or three weeks in each building, and are so circulated that every school may have at least one group within the school

or of something you saw coming to school. Then, a picture of a toy (they may imagine the smoke of steam-engine or of a ship, and, if they like, bring their own toys to school from home). Next, Illustrate a story (using the materials gained so far). Then, Draw trees (as they see them develop from week to week). Then, branches, twigs, and so on.'

year. Many parents testify to the new ideas of home decoration which the children are imbibing.

There cannot be much doubt as to the value of all these movements tending to identify the interests of home and school. They not only add to the ways of reaching the individual child, but have important results in respect of some of the side-issues of school life which bear upon the general moral aim in education. A place is found in the educational scheme for the child's affectional as well as for his intellectual life. In the next place, the maintaining of the contact of the home-life with the schools would seem to be of especial importance in view of the almost universal American practice of co-education. And, thirdly, a helpful and healthful stimulus is given to the social life and interests of the parents, with their own home life as a point of departure.

The 'International Journal of Ethics,' of July 1899 contained a well-founded plea that some place be found for affection in education, as one of the organisable elements in a rightly ordered school life. The recognition of the right and natural affections of children is justly spoken of as a safeguard against a prurient emotionalism which is often devastating in its effects. The writer of the article pleads in the main that a right view be taken and value set upon children's friendships. Such friendships are the cement of a healthy school life, the vital elements of a sound *esprit de corps*. Is it not part of manhood's happiness to look back and remember how what was manly and generous in our school-fellows evoked our admiration and affection, and created that blending of the two which is a schoolboy's 'hero-worship'? Nothing can foster school friendships more readily, in addition to the collective games and the

school enthusiasm which they help to inspire, than a strong infusion of the home feeling and the home interest.

In at least some American schools co-education seems in no way to hinder the growth of a loyal and enthusiastic school spirit. Whether this is true universally it is difficult to say. On the whole, one thinks there is no less public spirit in the American day school than in the English; and certainly there is, on the whole, vastly more of the family spirit. Such facts as that single elementary schools have sometimes their own magazine, that some have their own internal system of pupil-government, and that on great anniversaries there are in all schools united rallies round the flag, all tend in the direction of a good school spirit. The widespread adoption of co-education, the frank recognition of special days, including those when it is the children's joy to give presents as well as to receive them, are ways in which something of the family spirit is made to pervade the schoolroom. Parents, teachers and others are the recipients of simple gifts upon which the children have spent portion of their school time during periods of 'busy work.' One touching instance of this, referred to in the writer's other report, but worthy of repetition here, is that of the annual Christmas-tree in the Elizabeth Street School (a kind of truant school) at Toronto. It is a small school, but the boys, mostly either 'toughs,' or half-time newsboys of a roughish class, make as many as 1,400 articles for their Christmas-tree, presents for their parents, grandfathers and grandmothers, or other friends; and old people are sometimes seen with tears of joy running down their cheeks to find that there is a present for them.

The only other matter which shall be mentioned

here in connection with the linking together of the interests of home and school is a special application of the principle that the schools shall become, so far as may be possible, and as the districts in which they are found may require it, social and educative centres for parents as well as pupils. Passing over such services as the use of the school buildings (as in the case of the outlying districts of the city of Cleveland) for branch libraries, which are open two hours after school to parents for borrowing and exchanging books, there is a system of public free lectures at New York, of which a member of the Board of Superintendents, Dr. H. M. Leipziger, has the direction, and to the organisation of which he devotes the whole of his time. A few public buildings were loaned for the purpose, but the bulk of the work is done in the public schools, no less than thirty-six having been used in this way in the season of 1898–99. The total number of lectures (October 1, 1898, to May, 1899) was 1,923, and the total attendance 519,411. The lecture courses dealt with physiology and hygiene, natural science, travel, history and civics, art, literature and social science.

CHAPTER XI

THE PHILANTHROPIC SPIRIT IN EDUCATION

'Life that does not better itself is not life.'

In his notable essay on 'The Teacher as Philanthropist,' Professor W. H. Payne tells of a tutor who was engaged to teach and train, so far as might be possible, the son of a wealthy man who was prostrate both in body and mind. Physically unable to raise himself even to a sitting position, his mental horizon was equally limited. The tutor was anxious enough to do his duty to the youth, yet how could he teach a pupil whose favourite attitude was one of lying prone upon the floor? There was one and only one way—that of stooping to his charge (even lying by his side) and giving the stimulating suggestion and some faint rays of thought to the pupil at his own level. This the tutor did, and was rewarded by seeing his pupil raise himself so far as one so poorly endowed in body and mind was able to do; he learned to support himself in a reclining or sitting position instead of lying headlong, and caught some glimpses of the teacher's meaning through the teacher's sympathy.

The story is a parable of a high-minded people seeking to uplift its lowest and poorest. 'Humanity,' says the author of '*Ecce Homo*,'[1] 'is neither a love for the whole

[1] Ch. xiv. 'The Enthusiasm of Humanity.'

human race nor a love for each individual of it, but a love for the race, or for the ideal of man, in each individual.' From the standpoint of the philanthropist or of the nation seeking from humane motives to do its utmost for its outcast and feeble children, these words express the relation between moral effort and individual need. Hence one admires, even when one does not imitate, the tenacity with which the exponent of the American public school ideal clings to the principle that the right to education is a common heritage, that the public schools are the schools of all the citizens, and that it is 'wholly undemocratic and uneducational' to make distinctions between rich and poor.[1] Even in New York, which is the least American of American cities, where the inrush of a raw, illiterate immigrant population provides the principle with its limiting case, Dr. N. M. Butler and Dr. Russell, the Dean of Teachers College, speak in the same pronounced fashion upon this point as does the citizen of a thriving middle or western city where community of life and social interests is more easily attained. There is a greater force in society than the distinctions between class and class, and that is the common life in which all share, the solidarity of the community and the race. The best ingredient in the absolute democratising of education in America (in principle amongst the educational leaders and in the general practice of eastern cities, in universal practice in western cities) is the feeling that in so doing the nation is only stooping to her own in order to uplift

[1] 'We have only to look at England to see how, with her high ideals, great opportunities, and large expenditures for education, the people find themselves hampered at every turn in striving to effect reforms, by social and economic distinctions. We must not allow these to enter into our educational work.'—Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, 'Some Criticisms of the Kindergarten,' *Educational Review*, October 1899.

and perfect them. There is no theme upon which the American orator, especially the religious leader, who may almost be said to be *ipso facto* an educationist, speaks with more boundless faith in humanity than when describing America's open door; how that she practically invites the hampered and struggling classes of the old world to come and share her opportunities and her privileges, an education, the best that she can give, which is free to all, a social atmosphere in which all are free. Of course, there remain great social contrasts, and economic forces, as at present organised, work out their desocialising consequences; but the spirit in which educational opportunities are afforded is one in which some wider notion than philanthropy is concerned; it is a consciousness of national membership and national responsibility; because the nation covets health, the heart of the nation forces some of its richest blood into the diseased and feeble portions of the body politic, to heal and strengthen. 'Life that does not better itself is not life.'

In the more ordinary sense of the word, philanthropy has done and is doing much to accelerate the progress of education in America. One need not speak merely of the millions of dollars given yearly to education, for there is a constant outflow of socialising impulse from the churches and the philanthropic associations of the country which finds some of its very best expression in educational effort. The churches of the nation—of which one may speak quite indiscriminately, since there is no national Church—are hardly in danger of forgetting their relationship to the schools. America never allows herself, or at any rate, never allows her children, to forget that Plymouth Rock is the historical corner-stone of the vast temple of American national

life. The almost loving study of the story of the Pilgrim Fathers, the 'Mayflower' and the 'Discovery,' in the schools [1] is an abiding offset to the tendency to look for the beginnings of American history in the events preceding the War of Independence. In that story it is impossible to miss the note of high religious purpose; in it, therefore, lies a constant appeal to the organised religious forces of America to take their direct share in all that tends to the upbuilding of the State.

As to the direct interest which the churches take in public education as the most important effort that is being made to cope with America's stupendous sociological problems, Dr. Noble, of Chicago, said: 'From the time that the first foot was set on Plymouth Rock to the present day, the preachers in the churches, of whatever denomination, have the instinct of education, and are interested in school questions. What in the rural districts of England would be probably a parish school has in America the interest of every clergyman in the district; the school work is referred to in sermons; the clergyman visits the schools, irrespective of his denomination, talks with the teachers, and, so far as he is able, is their helper and friend.' In the State of Vermont, according to another witness, the Congregational pastor or the Catholic priest would be equally welcome to speak on general moral topics at the morning school assembly.

Co-operation with educational movements might almost be spoken of as one of the features of American church-life. Historically a great number of the uni-

[1] Even the arab citizens of the George Junior Republic study the story of the Puritan founders with interest. See appendix on the George Junior Republic to *Report on Moral Education in American Schools*.

versities, practically all the oldest universities, were founded by one or other of the religious denominations. This is too well known to need comment. But the influence of this fact has not been so frequently emphasised. In the first place, the fact that contributions to the support of these universities are still made by private individuals, or from denominational funds, tends to keep alive the interest of the churches in the progress of education. In the second place, a sort of tradition of responsibility has been handed down. It is a common thing for churches to take up University Extension courses, having, for example, history and chemistry courses going on concurrently on different evenings of the week. At the other extreme of the educational ladder one may frequently find a day nursery for very young children, with a kindergarten for those slightly older, supported by an individual church. A city superintendent of schools is quite liable to be invited to speak at meetings in the different churches of his city upon educational questions. The superintendent is asked to state his aims and hopes for the educational life of the city or district, especially in so far as it affects the home life in its relation to the school life of the children. The late superintendent of Brookline, Mr. Carroll, of Worcester, and Mr. Jones, of Cleveland, are instances of educational leaders who have been called upon in this way. 'The hour is ripe,' said Mr. Carroll, 'for much to be done by the superintendent outside of the official and business side of school life. He is called upon more and more to be a social leader.' The ministerial league at Worcester, for instance, annually invites him to address them on the ideals which he strives to keep before the schools. Both in America and Canada there is this closely realised alliance between church

and school, their life and trend being in many ways almost parallel; in support of which Inspector Hughes, of Toronto, referred to the new theology and the new education as having one and the same fundamental motive.

All this has been helpful to education. Private philanthropy and the mission efforts of various churches gave the kindergarten its first firm hold in America. This is clearly shown in Miss Blow's monograph, and impresses an observer from the contrast between the evident age of many of the signboards announcing the existence in church buildings of 'mission kindergartens,' and the appearance of newness in many of the kindergartens attached to the city school systems. Indeed, just as the voluntary schools, ragged schools, and other educational efforts preceded and paved the way for a system of public elementary education in England, it may be said that, in spite of the early allotments of public lands for the support of education, much that is best and most progressive in American education begins with private effort and experiment, and when successfully tested in this way is adapted in some form to city systems. To single out one or two instances: The pioneer work of the New York Education Association was spoken of in the preceding chapter; the famous experimental school, known as the University Elementary School, at Chicago, is supported almost entirely by private subscriptions; another school, which, without receiving any public money, gives an admirable all-round education to the children attending it, and is at the same time a sort of preaching-station of pedagogical methods, which have gained the ear of educators in all parts of America, is the Ethical Culture (Working Man's) School at New York; and in the same city, Teachers

College, which depends upon private donations for its support, not only has the well-staffed and well-equipped Horace Mann School (at present occupying the same building), but an experimental school. Colonel Parker has recently been provided by a wealthy Chicago lady with a large building and endowment, where he may carry out even more fully than he was able to do at the Chicago Normal School his ideas of the education of children and the training of teachers.

Similar to the work which some churches are doing individually is the educational work of the college, social and university settlements, of which Hull House, Chicago, the Hiram House Settlement, Cleveland, the Henry Street (Nurses') Settlement, and the Hudson Guild, New York, were visited. The way in which movements of the kind are studied and spread is instanced from the fact that the year-book of the Western Reserve University, Cleveland, devoted sixteen pages to a report on social settlements in New York City. To the educational efforts which are familiar features of settlement work, one may find, as at Chicago, kindergartens for children of infant school age, and even training classes for kindergarten teachers. In 1897 Chicago had twelve settlements, Boston had nine, New York eighteen. (London in the same year had thirty-two, Edinburgh and Manchester being next with three each.)[1]

Under the heading of the philanthropic spirit in education much might be written of the spirit of saving the child rather than of punishment, which characterises such truant schools as those of Syracuse, Indianapolis, and Toronto, and the Boston Parental School; such

[1] *Bibliography of College, Social, and University Settlements*, compiled by J. P. Gavit, of Chicago, for the College Settlements Association. Third edition. 1897.

reform schools as the Sockanosset School for Boys, Rhode Island; and the poor boys' orphanage, known as the Boston Farm School. The work of Mr. Day, of the Boston Parental School, and Mr. Butterfield, of the Sockanosset School, is briefly referred to elsewhere, but its moving principle is that which the author of '*Ecce Homo*' describes as a love for the ideal of man in each individual. The typical school of this kind, which is in many ways so much more than a school, and yet perhaps in reality an example of what school life ought to be for the class of boys it deals with, is the George Junior Republic. The aim of this institution is to find use for those better energies, even in children who seem foredoomed to a life of crime, of which Mill speaks in words which have been quoted in this connection: 'There is a capacity of exertion and self-denial in the masses of mankind which is never known but on rare occasions on which it is appealed to in the name of some great idea or elevated sentiment.' It is a rare occasion of this kind which life in the George Junior Republic and in some of the schools above referred to affords.

CHAPTER XII

INDIVIDUALITY AND THE MORAL AIM IN THE AMERICAN COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

'The foremost teachers of the foremost nations are the chief creators of the life that is to be.'

AMONGST the contributions which America is making to the cause of human progress is an unhesitating expression of her own aims and ideals. If, as sometimes happens, especially in the case of the less educated, the American habit of free self-expression tends to hyperbole, at least there is the greatly preponderating balance of advantage that no one need visit the country to inquire about things American and come empty away. Educators of all ranks and departments readily and as if by second nature put their plans and purposes into words. They gain, for it tends to what Thring used to speak of as 'thinking in shape'; the listener gains, for he obtains the information he desired. Accordingly, colleges and universities say through their councils, committees, and presidents what they are aiming to do. Hence after visits to representatives of rather more than half a dozen universities when passing through their cities, and to a large number of colleges, collecting year-books and calendars by the way, one is able to form some general idea of the tendency of education in its higher branches, so far as the limits of the present inquiry are concerned.

To quote first from Dr. Harris's address before the Boston University at its quarter-centennial in 1898:

It is the glory of higher education that it lays chief stress on the comparative method of study; that it makes philosophy its leading discipline; that it gives an ethical bent to all of its branches of study. Higher education seeks as its first goal the unity of human learning. Then in its second stage it specialises. . . .

The first part of higher education, that for the B.A. degree —as we have said already—teaches the unity of human learning. It shows how all branches form a connected whole and what each contributes to the explanation of the others.

For the reason that higher education makes the ethical insight its first object, its graduates hold the place, in the community at large, of spiritual monitors. They exercise a directive power altogether disproportionate to their number. They lead in the three learned professions, and they lead in the management of education of all kinds. They correct the one-sided tendencies of elementary education, and they furnish the wholesome centripetal forces to hold in check the extravagances of the numerous self-educated people who have gone off in special directions after leaving the elementary school.

Dr. Thwing told the writer of a practical way he had adopted of testing the value of a college education, which is described by Dr. Harris as follows:

Dr. Charles F. Thwing, President of Western Reserve University, a few years ago was at the pains to hit upon a novel method of comparing the college graduate with the rest of society. He took the six volumes of Appleton's 'Cyclopedia of American Biography' and counted the college graduates in its list of over 15,000 names. A little more than one-third of all were discovered to be college men. A safe inference was that one out of ten thousand of the population who have not had a college education training has become of sufficient note to be selected for mention in a biographical dictionary, while

one out of each forty of our college men finds his place there. The chance of the college man as compared with the non-college man is as 250 to 1 to become distinguished as a public man of some sort—soldier, naval officer, lawyer, statesman, clergyman, teacher, author, physician, artist, scientist, inventor—in short, a man with directive power of some kind, able to combine matter into a new and useful form, or to combine men in such a way as to reconcile their differences and produce a harmonious whole of endeavour.

So far the experience of the past. When in a second speech, quoted in the same number of the 'Educational Review' (September, 1898), Dr. Harris applies this experience of what the college and the university has contributed to American life and leadership to new national problems, he says:

It is this very summer that the hand on the dial of our history has pointed at twelve, and for better or worse we have entered upon our new epoch as an active agent in the collective whole of great powers that determine and fix the destiny of the peoples on the planet. This new era is one of great portent to the statesmen of America. All legislation hereafter must be scrutinised in view of its influence upon our international relations. We cannot any longer have that smug sense of security and isolation which has permitted us to legislate without considering the effect of our action on foreign nations. Hereafter our chief national interest must be the foreign one, and consequently our highest studies must be made on the characters, inclinations, and interests of foreign powers. It is obvious that this study requires a greater breadth of education, more careful studies in history and in the manners and customs of European nations; their methods of organising industries as well as their methods of organising armies and navies. We must even master foreign literatures, and see what are the fundamental aspirations of the people who read them. All this study concerns the system of educa-

tion in this country. It indicates the function of the schoolmaster in the coming time.

This new burden will fall on the school systems in the several States, and more particularly on the colleges and universities that furnish the higher education. For it is higher education that must direct the studies in history and in the psychology of peoples which will provide our ministers and ambassadors abroad their numerous retinues of experts and specialists thoroughly versed in the habits and traditions of the several nations. The knowledge required by our members of Congress and our executive departments will make a demand upon higher education for post-graduate students who have concentrated their investigations upon points in international law and the philosophy of history. Diplomacy will become a great branch of learning for us.

This has been felt for some time, although it has not been consciously realised. We must look to our universities and colleges for the people who have learned to understand the fashions and daily customs of a foreign people, and who have learned to connect the surface of their everyday life with the deep national principles and aspirations which mould and govern their individual and social action. Hence the significance of this epoch in which we are assembled to discuss the principles of education and its methods of practice. There have been great emergencies, and great careers have opened to American teachers, in our former history; but we stand to-day on the vestibule of a still more important time-period: it is the era of the union of the New World with the Old World.

As briefly as possible one must examine what America is doing by way of meeting these great demands. In the first place, wealthy men are realising the local and national importance of universities. To take the case of Chicago. Between April 1889 and the end of 1895 Mr. Rockefeller had endowed its new university with $7,700,000, and the citizens of Chicago had sub-

scribed $5,000,000. On the other hand, young men of no wealth are responding to the opportunity in ways which show how strong a hold the desire for a college education has obtained. It is under an impulse of this kind that in most American universities there are poor students who perform some kind of manual work outside of their study hours in order to earn money with which to pay their tuition fees (which amount at Chicago to some $35 a trimester). Thus one will take the position of gas-lamp lighter, another will be an hotel waiter, another will pay his way by being steward or cook for his comrades, another will save up from a moderate salary in order to come to the university and get a degree. There are State universities, such as that of Michigan, at Ann Arbor, and of Minnesota, at Minneapolis, where education is provided for citizens of the State at nominal cost. Twenty-nine States maintain a single 'State University,' supported 'exclusively or prevailingly' from public funds, and 'under the more or less direct control of the legislature and administrative officers of the State.'

At the beginning of the nineteenth century the words 'the holy cause of the university' occur in the correspondence with Jefferson concerning the University of Virginia, who was a warm supporter of the effort. Nor can it be said at the beginning of the twentieth century that the American university has outgrown the ideal which these words set forth. Dr. Northrop, President of the University of Minnesota, spoke of the importance of the attitude of the university towards moral and religious questions. The reliance upon personal honour and the general regard for religion which the university inculcates exert a far-reaching influence upon the schools both by way of example and because many of the teachers

are sent out from the university. 'The fact that the State university keeps up daily worship makes it eminently respectable. There is a great toning up throughout the schools when the State university life is serious, and the general attitude of the people becomes more favourable to religion.' One may compare with this the casual observation that the 'University Record' of May 11, 1900, contained fifteen pages on 'Religious Work at the University of Chicago,' by one of the professors. The American college, said Dr. Thwing, is pretty thoroughly impressed with the necessity of forming character. Most of the colleges and universities have well supported religious organisations.

At the Chicago Normal School the acting principal said that the elements which were making moral trainers of the teachers there were the morning exercises, which vary greatly, but generally have a distinct moral reference, and the social life encouraged by various forms of co-operative work. One of the most quickening experiences during the three months the writer spent in America was a visit to a morning assembly at this school. The principal of one city normal school, in answer to the question, What were the influences relied upon to prepare the students to be trainers of character? replied that the chief influences were the encouragement of sincerity, love of their work, and of the feeling that it was a life full of serious meanings upon which they were entering—it becomes, she said, too serious to them sometimes, and added: 'We have the machinery in the public schools which, if we had the sense and the devotion to use it, might reform the world.'

In his brief review of education in the United States which prefaced the series of monographs contributed by the State of New York to the Paris Educational

Exhibit, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, whilst admitting that of the 472 existing colleges some are very small and poorly equipped, adds that 'it ought not to be forgotten that almost every college exerts a helpful influence upon the life of its locality.' The general result of a college course is thus summed up by Professor Andrew Fleming West: 'At least some insight into the terms and commonplaces of liberal learning and some discipline in the central categories of knowledge, some moral training acquired in the punctual performance of perhaps unwelcome daily duty, and some reverence for things intellectual and spiritual.'

It is mainly within the last twenty-five years that the university has made itself distinctly felt as distinguished from the college and the academy. The transition from the smaller college to the larger and more centralised university brings with it some necessary changes in the relation between the individual students and the faculty. 'A feature in the instruction of the early college, which is likely to be overlooked, in the pride at the increasing size of the modern college, is the degree of personal attention given to each student' (President Carter, Williams College). President Hadley's predecessor at Yale refers to the same matter in his last report, and says there is a certain loss which the student suffers in consequence. 'The call of the present and the coming time upon our professors and teachers is an impressive and emphatic call to enter into as close relations as possible with the individual students who are under their personal instruction.' At Yale, according to a letter received from President Hadley, this difficulty is being met in part by adding to the staff young men in all departments who, whilst taking their part in the teaching, shall be more or less able to come into indi-

vidual touch with the students. President Eliot, of Harvard, the great advocate of perfectly open courses of study, of 'option as the engine of efficiency,' finds the answer in the increased responsibility thrown upon the individual student.

When a young man whom I never saw before asks me what studies he had better take in college, I am quite helpless, until he tells me what he likes and what he dislikes to study, what kinds of exertion are pleasurable to him, what sports he cares for, what reading interests him, what his parents and grandparents were in the world, and what he means to be. In short, I can only show him how to think out the problem for himself with such lights as he has and nobody else can have.

. . . A university must permit its students in the main to govern themselves. . . . The *in loco parentis* theory is an ancient fiction which ought no longer to deceive anybody. . . . The moral purpose of a university's policy should be to train young men to self-control and self-reliance through liberty. . . . Let no one imagine that a young man is in peculiar moral danger at an active and interesting university. Far from it. Such a university is the safest place in the world for young men who have anything in them—far safer than counting-room, shop, factory, farm, barrack, forecastle, or ranch. The student lives in a bracing atmosphere; books engage him; good companionships invite him; good occupations defend him; helpful friends surround him; pure ideals are held up before him; ambition spurs him; honour beckons him.

CHAPTER XIII

THE EDUCATIONAL PRESS

'Life is passing out regardless of distance, regardless of country, regardless of climate, regardless of custom, regardless of all the hard facts that sea and land have hitherto set in the way of outward friendship.'

PUBLISHER and editor are an important *tiers état* in the educational community of which the children are the *noblesse* and the educators the professional class. The large publishing firms of America have upon their staff experienced educationists, who are capable alike of judging the tendencies and demands of the hour, and of forestalling, even creating, demands for something in advance of immediate needs. 'The sight of means' is one of the readiest of suggestions of action. Without doubt, the classical standards of scholarship established themselves so firmly in European and American schools very largely because the work of the grammarians and lexicographers of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries supplied in abundance the instruments of such an education. Text-book companies are, therefore, a possible factor in educational advance. One meets representatives of large houses on educational committees, and finds expert university-trained men not only as publishers' advisers, but as book agents, whose duty is often to meet text-book committees of the Boards of Education and to show the educational value of their books.

All this points to a clear tendency to eliminate 'the long-felt need,' which has been a sort of orthodox apology for a new book, and to meet the need as it arises, if possible even, according to the present day policy of publishers, to meet the need half-way. Speaking before the National Educational Association in 1897 the secretary of the American Book Company said :

> The part of the publisher is both to follow and to lead, to supply the want that exists and to create a new and better want. . . .
>
> The editorial department of a well-organised publishing house keeps a close watch over educational tendencies, the development of this or that educational theory, the exemplification of this or that phase of teaching, the doings of this or that particular group of enthusiastic, growing teachers.
>
> Publishers study the educational sentiment and crystallise it into definite shape, providing text-books having a common basis, thus tending to assist in unifying the educational interests of the whole country.

The fact that the National Association invited a publisher's representative to address them was in itself a proof of their acknowledgment of the kind of co-operation here spoken of. To quote one educator's testimony, 'Frequently a book is produced which is quite in advance of the methods used by teachers generally, the teachers' eyes are opened, and through the supervisors or superintendents recommendations are made to the boards of education in its favour.' Special progress has been made in this way in children's literature, and what is, perhaps, even more important, a generation of writers is springing up whose talents are flowing out in this direction, and producing brightly written children's books, which are well illustrated and attractively bound.

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Educational journalism is another form of help offered by the press to the teacher; and the voices of those prominent in this department are to be heard at the great educational gatherings. One of the chief differences which is pointed to between the old time school teacher and the new, is that the former did not read, and the teacher of to-day does. The self-satisfaction of the schoolmaster of earlier times arose out of his knowing little or nothing of what others were doing. Now he reads, compares himself with others, knows what they are doing. 'Let thanks be given,' said the President of the Press Association of America, addressing the National Educational Association, 'to educational papers, first of all that the schoolmasters of the past, the Doctor Blimbers and the Ichabod Cranes, are disappearing from our literature; that for the word schoolmaster we have substituted teacher.' This is one of the notable effects of educational journalism. Another is the way in which the interests of school and home are brought together in the pages of educational journals, attributable in part to the desire to retain as subscribers those who have passed from school duties to those of the family, but also to the realisation of the truth that in matters of education the school and the home occupy a large amount of common ground. In this department, also, much may be done and is being done to point the way to better things, showing causes for dissatisfaction where they exist, and championing a right cause even when the public mind is indifferent or hostile. 'It is a mistake,' says one experienced editor, 'to conclude that an educational journal cannot afford to give offence to anyone. . . . There is no need of keeping one's ear to the ground in order to make a success of educational journalism. *Leadership* is the great requirement.' The

'Educational Review,' edited by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, stands pre-eminently for such leadership. The ethical aspects of education are constantly kept to the fore by such papers as the 'School Journal' of New York, and an editor's office often becomes a preaching centre of the highest ideals.

The public press has ever an open column for educational intelligence. This one notices at once in passing from city to city. The larger magazines are equally ready to publish articles dealing with phases of 'America's greatest industry.' The 'Atlantic Monthly' will publish such an article as that of Dr. Münsterberg which has been quoted; the American 'Review of Reviews' takes up such phases of school life as the 'school city,' and the application of the principle of 'learning by doing' to the education of coloured peoples; the 'Forum' has contained some most remarkable criticisms of schoolroom practice. The report of the committee on rural schools contains under the heading 'The Home and the School' suggestions to the supervisor or superintendent to keep education before the people by means of the county paper:

> The press is valuable to every teacher and helpful to the system of education by bringing farmers into sympathy with the great educational movements of the world. The press gives a larger audience, though it enforces a shorter address. But a little every week, full of variety and interest, will eventually build up a healthy sentiment in the county and educate parents as well as children.

So fully is the value of the press realised by teachers that in Minneapolis the officials and teachers have appointed a special committee to look up the current papers and magazines, and publish a monthly leaflet

indicating articles of special interest to teachers. The following are cuttings from the issue for May 1900 :

School and Home Education.

'The Present Status of Education.' By Dr. Wm. T. Harris. This article is worthy of much earnest study.

'Truancy and Its Cure.' By Supt. J. K. Stableton.

'Mechanism and Freedom.' By Geo. P. Brown.

Munsey.

'The New Spirit of Education.' By Arthur Henry. Describing the new primary education in several Washington and Chicago schools, where the 'Gradgrind' theory has been dismissed, and the kindergarten idea substituted.

Educational Review. (April.)

'Adjustment of Education to Contemporary Needs.' By Edwin D. Mead.

'Education in the United States.' By Nicholas Murray Butler.

Atlantic Monthly.

'Nations and the Decalogue.' By H. D. Sedgwick, Jr. A strong plea for the same standard of morality in the conduct of a nation as in that of an individual.

'School Reform.' By Hugo Münsterberg. Comparison of results obtained in schools of Germany and America. 'True reform must come, not from pedagogics, but from the better preparation of the teacher for his work.'

'The Consular Service of the United States.' Second Paper.

'The Father of English Prose Style.' By J. H. Gardener. 'After all the action and reaction of time, it is still true that the type of prose style is the style of the first man who ever used printed English to speak to the nation as a whole.' (Tyndale.)

'The Experimental Life.' By C. H. Henderson. 'It is first of all, to be, and then to know ; and only incidentally to have.'

The functions of the United States Bureau of Education at Washington, 'as a central force in a decentralised system,' and 'as a centre of educational information and counsel,' have been stated by Mr. R. L. Morant in the first volume of 'Special Reports on Educational Subjects,' presented to Parliament in 1897. Mr. Morant opens with words which have more weight than any which the writer himself could use, and show how far beyond the borders of the States the influence of this central educational press has made itself felt: 'Every student of education is under a debt of gratitude to the United States Government for the work of the National Bureau of Education of the United States. Its volumes, published under the direction of Commissioner W. T. Harris, have probably done more than any other single agency to encourage the comparative study of the science and art of education and of the various systems of educational administration now in force in the different countries of the world.'

CONCLUDING WORDS

'I see glimpses of the landscape and the path, and the light on the path, and all the life of it; I hope you will enter in and make it your own.'

IN the foregoing chapters the writer has endeavoured to tell, so far as he was able to discover them, the meanings and the aims which give life and unity to American education. The phase of American education which has been presented is that which lies uppermost in the thoughts of the educators of that great nation. Education is the beginning and the end of national progress in the thought of the American educator, an education which has the human rather than the commercial reference, which shall make not so much the mechanic as the man.

How difficult this art is, the criticisms that have been ventured upon may serve to suggest. Taking a general view of the situation, at the two extremes of the ladder a true holdfast seems to have been secured. There is probably nothing more beautiful in education anywhere than the school life of children in the best kindergarten and primary grades. Here the school work becomes the child's willing expression of himself; the school life is part and parcel of his own natural life, which it supplements, enlarges, and interprets. Two factors concur in this end—the educator's interest in the child and the child's interest in what he is set to do. These two

forces naturally merge into each other, and are part of what may be spoken of as the American spirit in education. Out of the educator's interest in and study of the child springs a course of study which, at any rate in the earliest years of school experience, meets the child halfway and ministers to the forms of intellectual hunger which manifest themselves between the ages of five and ten. It is here that the educational revival of the last twenty-five years, which is commonly spoken of in America, has its completest expression. In the kindergarten between the ages of four and six and in the primary grades of the next four years (neglecting local variations) the aptitudes and ability of the child, intellectual, moral, and social, are the prime consideration. As a result we find love of colour, love of story, and of picture, frank self-expression (which the schools especially encourage), interest in nature, and concrete ways of approaching abstract and formal subjects marking the entire work of the primary grade pupils. The great moral features are the beauty-loving and the free. That these may be inadequate, and may by their excessive encouragement leave very real gaps in the influence which the school should exert upon its pupils, has been suggested as a possible defect. But that the work in this department of the school is right in the main hardly admits of doubt. Formal, exact, 'finnicking' work, abstract process, and mass of detail are withheld. Child study in the broad sense of the word, that is in the sense in which Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel prepared the way for it, as well as in its more special and more recent applications, has done this for the American boy and girl in the first three or four years of their school life. In these grades school methods are seen at their brightest and best. Interest in the objects made

or represented and in the topics written about is kept as keen as possible, by careful choice of objects and topics. At the other extreme, the post graduate work in the universities is in an eminent degree an augury of good. Clark University at Worcester, of which Dr. G. Stanley Hall is president, exists for this kind of work alone. The number of such students in the universities generally has increased by leaps and bounds in recent years.

In the intervening stages, the city high schools are well equipped, and would be more successful if the upper departments of the elementary school more generally prepared their pupils for secondary school work, by breaking up the ground in certain of the subjects now often approached for the first time in the high school, and by improving in some respects the methods of study. Many of the grammar grades still await the reformer's hand. That this reformation will come, actually is coming, may be taken for granted. The streams of tendency from below and from above must inevitably meet. When this happens, and the entire educational system already unified in organisation is unified in spirit, the conditions will exist which will inevitably supply some of the features that are still lacking in elementary school education as a whole; the moral aim in education will not have been lost sight of, and the individuality developed in pupils at whatever stage their course of education ceases will be more complete.

One or two of the points that have come up in the report may be briefly summarised:

1. *The principle of locality.* American educational organisation and its results go far to show the importance (under adequate central control, which in favourable conditions may well tend to a minimum) of the principle of locality; the use, that is, which is made of local influences and local interest as

a force making for excellence in the school work of a city or district.

2. *The solidarity of the educational forces.* American education as a whole exemplifies the principle which is naturally more or less true everywhere, but which stands out clearly when, as in America, its importance and necessity are fully realised, of the unity or solidarity of the educational forces; from kindergarten to university, from university to kindergarten, there is a tendency towards a common life and a common aim.

3. *The immense value of maintaining a close relationship between the school and the home.*

4. *The importance of a conscious aim in education.* This, as an English review said recently, is all that is meant by the word 'educationist,' one who is 'imbued with the significance of all that he is doing, working according to principles and methods, and a readiness to adapt himself to the child's growing natural needs.' Almost every American educator is, under the leadership of superintendent, supervisor, school principal, or educational press, something of an educationist in this sense.

5. *That the 'new education,' as Americans use the term, is not exhaustive.* To Dr. Münsterberg's assertion of this truth might be added that of educational experts. The same opinion is expressed in other quarters. A keen observer of American life and fashions, living at the very 'storm-centre' of all things American, says, with epigrammatic humour: 'We sind th' childer to school as if 'twas a summer garden where they go to be amused. . . . We'd be much betther teachin' thim th' sthrangle hold, f'r that's what they need in life. . . . They're conducted up thro' a channel iv free an' beautiful thought till they're r-ready f'r colledge. . . . Childher shudden't be sint to school to larn, but to larn how to larn. I don't care what ye larn thim so long as 'tis onpleasant to thim. 'Tis thrainin' they need.'

6. *Co-education* is probably firmly established as an American practice. It is not so certain, however, that it has yet assumed its final phase. Whether by a system of allowing

a certain number of elective courses, others being obligatory, in the upper elementary grades, or by whatever suitable method, it is the writer's conviction that something has yet to be done to make the education given in the elementary schools as stimulating in its influence on American boys as it undoubtedly is in the case of American girls.

7. America's increasing *adoption of the principle of the kindergarten*, not simply as an infant-school expedient, but as a far-reaching educational philosophy, accounts for much that is excellent in the schools. The writer has long held that amongst the educational philosophies that have been propounded that of Froebel is the most consonant with and has the completest contribution to make to the education of Anglo-Saxon peoples. If, to match Pestalozzi's 'not words, but things,' a phrase were coined to hit off the spirit of the Froebelian philosophy of education, some such motto as 'not things, but processes,' would seem to serve the purpose. (*Cf.* article in the English 'Educational Review,' May 1899 : 'The Education of the Anglo-Saxon,' iii.). Whence, to select one point, the fuller introduction of manual occupations, not as a means of, or a preparation for, technical training, but as an integral part of every child's education. ''Tis not a soul, 'tis not a body that we are training up, but a man, and we ought not to divide him.' No words can too strongly express the importance of *universal* hand-training (e.g. a graduated system of clay-work, 'bricklaying,' wire-work, cardboard work, and paper folding), connecting the kindergarten occupations of the infant school with the manual training of the upper standards and science schools.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

THE following are the regulations for promotion in the Borough of Brooklyn; they are taken from the rules for the admission, transfer, and promotion of pupils in the public schools of the Borough of Brooklyn, New York City, N. Y. (Charter, Sec. 1110; By-Laws, Sec. 273).

1. It shall be the duty of every class teacher of a grammar or primary grade to determine and record at the close of each month the standing of each of the pupils. The rating in every class shall be based solely upon the pupil's ability to take up advanced work, as shown by his success in the work already done. It shall not be based upon a record of recitations, nor upon examinations, nor upon deportment.

2. The rating made at the end of any month after the first shall summarise all previous ratings. The average of the ratings of the fifth month, therefore, shall represent the pupil's standing for the term.

3. In grammar grades ratings shall be made in each of the following subjects, wherever it is taught: English, mathematics, geography and science, history, geography and civil government, and drawing. In primary grades ratings shall be made in each of the following subjects: reading, language (including spelling and composition), writing, arithmetic, and drawing.

4. The ratings employed shall be: 'excellent,' 'good,' 'passable,' 'unsatisfactory,' and 'bad.'

5. It shall be the duty of every principal to see that all pupils in his school are properly rated, and that all ratings are properly recorded.

6. The ratings of all pupils in grades above the fifth primary for every month, except the month of June, shall be regularly reported to their parents or guardians on or before the tenth day of the succeeding month. The ratings for the month of June shall be reported on or before the last day of the school term.

7. Each pupil's monthly report card shall become his property at the end of the term or when he leaves school.

8. A card, containing the ratings to date, shall be issued to each child in any grade below the fourth primary when he leaves to enter another public school.

9. When a principal admits a pupil from another public school he shall place said pupil in the grade indicated by the report card.

10. A principal may set aside a teacher's ratings and determine the standings of her pupils by examination; but in every such case the teacher affected shall have the right of appeal to the Board of Superintendents. When a principal sets aside a teacher's ratings, he shall report the fact to the Borough Superintendent. Should the principal, during any term, set aside the ratings of more than twenty per cent. of his teachers he shall report his action to the Board of Superintendents, who will investigate the reasons of such action.

11. Promotions within a school shall be made by the principal. They shall be based upon the standings determined by the class teachers, except where such standings have been set aside, when they shall be based upon the results of examination. At least fifty per cent. of the pupils in every class shall be promoted at the end of each term, except in cases where, for special reasons, the Borough Superintendent authorises the principal to hold the pupils back. All pupils who fail of promotion on the teacher's rating shall have the right to be examined by the principal for promotion.

12. Regular promotions from a grammar school to another school of higher grade shall in all cases be made by the Borough Board of Superintendents.

13. The regular examinations for promotion shall be held during the last two weeks of the term. During the last month of the term no other examinations than those prescribed by the foregoing rules shall be held in any class by teacher, head of department, or principal, except by direction of the Borough Superintendent.

14. The mark for promotion on teachers' ratings shall be 'passable.' In any examination for which questions are supplied by the Borough Superintendent the mark for promotion or graduation

shall be determined by the Board of Superintendents. The studies included in such examination, and all the rules governing the examination, shall be determined by this Board.

15. When a pupil, entitled to promotion within a school, cannot receive it for want of accommodation, he shall receive it in some other school in which there is accommodation, in accordance with the provisions of II. 3, *b*.

16. When complaint has been made to the Borough Superintendent that a child has been unjustly promoted or refused promotion, he shall examine into the facts of the case and make a discision that shall be final.

APPENDIX B

REPLIES FROM CITY SUPERINTENDENTS BEARING UPON THE REPORT.

THE following are taken from answers to a circular letter sent to over seventy city superintendents, containing the inquiry :

What efforts are being made in the schools of your system, either by individual teachers or by yourself, as superintendent, to introduce the element of individuality into the class work? I should be glad to hear (*a*) of any device used in large classes to bring the teacher into touch with the individual scholars ; (*b*) of any methods of grading, or (*c*) of any methods of instruction adopted by skilful individual teachers with this end in view.

I. From Mr. J. A. Foshay, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California :

Our pupils are watched as individuals as much as possible under the crowded condition of our schoolrooms at the present time. Pupils are promoted whenever they are thought to be capable of doing the work of the next grade. Individual promotions are made during each school month, but class promotions take place at the end of each semester, and are determined by the teacher and principal. Questions are sent from the superintendent's office, intended to bring teachers into touch with individual pupils.

II. From Mr. C. H. Gordon, Superintendent of Schools, Lincoln, Nebraska :

(*a*) While we have no special device in use at present to bring the teacher into touch with the individual scholars, it is my purpose to introduce a plan next year which will do this for the lower grades. The plan is to make use of tables and chairs in the first, second, and third grades, instead of the individual desks which are now in use. There will be probably about four tables each, about 14 or 15 feet long, 3 feet wide, and of suitable height, for the children of the room. One table will be used for a work table. This table will be supplied with scissors, rulers, paper, and other suitable materials for work, such as cutting, drawing plans, and other similar manual training work. Another table will be provided, with a raised pigeon-hole arrangement along the centre, for paper, pens, &c., and will be used as a writing table. All materials needed will be at hand. Another table will be used for a reading table, and will be provided with a pigeon-hole arrangement down the centre, in which will be all the different books and other reading matter used. Another table will be provided with steep sloping sides, to be used as a painting table. Pupils will be seated at the different tables, all at their particular kind of work, and at certain periods will be changed from table to table, to give change of work. The class receiving instruction from the teacher will be at one side of the room where they will have the use of the blackboard.

Some of the advantages that we hope to obtain by this method will be :

1. Better adaptation of work and more convenient facilities in management of pupils in the room.

2. Saving of time by having all the materials for the children to work with directly at hand when they are ready for work. Under the present arrangement, the distribution of pens, paper, rulers, &c., takes up a large amount of time.

3. Better training in habits of work and study.

(*b*) Our present method of grading is the same as that in use in many other schools in this country, namely, the half-year system of promotions. The advantage claimed for this method is that it simplifies the method of promotion and saves to the pupil who fails in his grade much lost time, inasmuch as it is only necessary that he should go back one half-year instead of a full year. I may say that, personally, the method does not seem to me to be wholly satisfactory. Instead of the half-year system, it is my purpose to

introduce, as soon as convenient, a system of parallel or concentric courses. Under this plan the classes will be arranged in yearly grades, but each grade will be subdivided into two or three divisions. One of these, comprised of the weaker pupils, will be required to take only such work as they can do satisfactorily. The section composed of pupils of greater capacity will be required to cover a larger amount of ground, and the division composed of the best pupils will be required to cover still more ground. By this method each pupil will be given the work that will be best adapted to him, and his promotion will be based upon the effort put forth rather than by any fixed requirement as to subject matter. For example, in arithmetic certain things will be considered essential to all, and these will constitute the full requirements for the C class. The B class will cover this ground with additional matter that may be of more or less importance, while the A class will cover all of the preceding and other subjects that will not be considered essential for the B and C divisions. The work, therefore, as you will see, will be comprised in concentric circles, the innermost consisting of the work required for all, and the second and third of the work required for the B and A divisions. I believe this method will be a much better adjustment of work to the varying capacity of pupils than the method now in use.

A device for securing individual instruction which I should be pleased to see put in operation, would be to have schoolrooms arranged in suites of two—one large as a study and work room, the other smaller for a recitation room; the large room to contain seventy or eighty pupils. These to be under two teachers, one of whom would conduct the recitation, while the other would give individual instruction in the large room. I believe this method has many advantages over our present method of handling the work.

(*c*) With reference to special methods of instruction adopted by skilful individual teachers, I will only mention that we are using, to some extent, the source method in history, adapted especially to the individuality of pupils, inasmuch as it is partly a laboratory course. The method has not been fully worked out, but is giving satisfaction, and, I believe, is likely to prove very successful.

III. From Mr. H. E. Kratz, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa:

It affords me much pleasure to respond to your inquiries of recent date, concerning our school system.

Quite a number of features have been introduced gradually into the Sioux City Schools, looking towards the better introduction of the element of individuality into class work. Briefly stated they are these :

1. The introduction of shorter intervals between grades. Formerly the grades were an entire school year, or nine months apart. Now they are only a semester, or four and a half months apart. This closer grading makes possible a better classification of pupils of about the same ability and advancement, and brings class instruction nearer to the higher level of individual instruction. It also affords greatly increased facilities for frequent readjustments of pupils through individual or special promotions. Our records show that at least 6 per cent. of our pupils are thus under constant process of reclassification.

2. The teachers have been given constant instruction as to the need and advantages of coming into close personal contact with each individual pupil. No two children are alike. Hereditary tendencies, environment, natural capabilities, and other influences, playing through the sensitive soul of the child, will inevitably produce an infinity of variations. Hence personal study and instruction of each child, as far as the class-room will permit, is imperative.

3. To stimulate such individual study of each child I made out a card,[1] calling it a record of pupils' chief characteristics, and introduced it into the Sioux City Schools about six years ago. The good results were soon apparent. First, and of foremost importance, a deeper interest was roused up among the teachers in the study of pupils' chief characteristics. Individual peculiarities were better understood and deeper insight gained into child nature.

Second, teachers developed a more intelligent appreciation of the real needs and defects of their pupils, and manifested a greater definiteness of aim in their work.

Third, a few children, who were supposed to be hopelessly dull, were found to be simply dull in hearing, and some were hindered by defective eyesight.

Fourth, children were better seated with reference to their ability to see and hear.

Fifth, teachers were brought into closer and better relations to their pupils in general, and developed greater intelligence and sympathy in dealing with the so-called bad boys and girls.

[1] See Appendix D.

IV. From Mr. O. B. Bruce, Superintendent of Schools, Lynn, Massachusetts:

(*a*) By dividing classes into small groups, usually five groups in a class of fifty pupils, composed of those nearly uniform in mental ability and capacity; also by a device formerly used in two of our schools, but dropped last year—an extra teacher for pupils 'below grade.'

(*b*) As teachers or principals discover in any pupil development of mental power beyond that class he is immediately placed in next higher class or grade, regardless of time of year or part of course.

(*c*) By adjusting details of subject and instruction (in quality and quantity) to the several abilities, capacities, and outside opportunities of pupils, so that the weak or less favoured shall not be forced or expected to take the work prescribed or adapted to the stronger of the class.

V. From Mr. John T. Prince, agent to the Massachusetts Board of Education:

The following points referred to in your questions have been urged upon teachers and superintendents in recent addresses. I have reason to believe that many of the methods recommended have been pursued with a good degree of success.

The needs of individual pupils are met (1) by a careful plan of class and individual promotions; (2) by the giving of a small number of pupils to a teacher; (3) by a plan of tasks and recitations by which all the pupils are permitted to do the most that they are capable of doing; (4) by a systematic plan of visits at the homes of certain pupils.

(1) Several plans of class promotion are recommended, details of which are included in a special report, a copy of which I send you by this mail.

[In describing one plan, similar in many respects to methods referred to in the foregoing pages, Mr. Prince says:]

If thought best by the teacher, worthy pupils of the lower section are permitted to do some of the work of the upper section, with the expectation of passing into the next higher class with the latter named section. In some instances also, for the purpose of

gaining time, pupils of one room are permitted to recite in one or two subjects with the pupils of a higher room.

One month before the close of a semester teachers are asked to give to the superintendent of schools, or supervising principal, a list of pupils of whose promotion there is no doubt, another list of pupils whose detention in the section for another half-year is also unquestionable, and a third list consisting of those whose place during the next semester is, in the opinion of the teacher, uncertain. During the last month of the semester the superintendent or principal gives special attention to the last-named list of pupils, questioning them upon important points, and under his direction all the teachers of each grade prepare examination questions for the doubtful pupils. The results of this test, together with the impressions of the teacher and superintendent, help the latter to determine whether the doubtful pupils shall be promoted unconditionally or be obliged to repeat some or all of the last semester's work, or be permitted to pass into the higher section on probation for one month. It should be said that throughout the course special notices are sent to the parents of those pupils who are falling behind in their work. By this means the active assistance and co-operation of parents are secured.

So far as individual promotions are concerned, superintendents and teachers should be constantly watchful, the only question being, where each pupil shall be placed so that he will do the most for himself. In rural schools especially care should be taken to have pupils placed in classes where they will work most advantageously. A pupil may recite in one class in arithmetic, and another class in reading, in two classes in one subject, and, if circumstances warrant it, he may not recite at all in a given subject. What we need is a greater elasticity of system or plan.

(2) No teacher should have more than thirty pupils in a graded school, or twenty pupils in an ungraded school. This standard is not reached in many places, but school committees and superintendents are appreciating more and more the importance of having a smaller number of pupils to a teacher.

(3) I am urging teachers to give extra voluntary work in addition to the required work, it being understood that the required work shall be done by all the pupils, and the extra work by those who are able to complete the required work in a short period of time. In my addresses to teachers this plan is elaborated fully with examples from subjects taught in the schools.

(4) The pupils to be visited are those who do the work of the

school with difficulty. Visits are made for the purpose of ascertaining the home conditions, and of securing the co-operation of the parents.

VI. From Mr. E. H. Mark, Superintendent of Schools, Louisville, Kentucky:

For many years there has been a rule in our Manual requiring the promotion of pupils at any time when found capable of doing the work of the grade in advance.

We have no provision for individuality in teaching, except after the twelve o'clock recess, as stated below. It has been the custom to divide the large classes of the lower grades into two or three sections. Three years ago, at my suggestion, the Board passed a rule allowing the superintendent to dismiss the first and second grades at twelve o'clock, and retain the teachers of these grades to instruct any pupils of the upper grades who might need individual attention. The plan has worked satisfactorily, in that we have been able to give assistance to those pupils who were falling behind and thereby helping them to maintain their class standing. It is my experience that many pupils who would have dropped out of school because of failure to maintain class standing have, by this individual assistance, kept pace with the class and therefore remained in school. It is necessary to explain that we have only one daily session of our schools. The schools open at 8.30 A.M. and close at 1.30 P.M., with two short recesses, one at 10.30, the other at 12 noon.

At the twelve o'clock recess all pupils of the first grade and those of the second grade who have done satisfactory work are dismissed, and the teachers are used as above indicated.

VII. From Mr. C. B. Gilbert, Superintendent of Schools, Newark, N.J.:

Your first question I must answer in a general way. We endeavour to have the number not too large in any class-room, and then divide these into groups varying in size and attainment for study and recitation purposes. The groups are smaller in the lower grades than in those that are higher. Though this method is quite informal, the teachers are able by means of it to learn quite well the individual characteristics of the different children and give them due consideration. Naturally some teachers will be

more successful than others in this as in every other phase of work. In some schools we are also trying individual records, which are started when the children enter school and go with them through the different grades, being modified as the children advance in age and display new or theretofore unobserved characteristics. These are intended for the confidential use of teachers to aid them in their efforts in dealing with the individual children. I am, through every means in my power, excepting the use of absolute authority, reducing the size of classes in recitation, and have been successful in almost all cases. I prefer that the teachers shall believe in my ideas and follow them out *con amore*, rather than that they should obey unwillingly. I must state here that I have been but a little over three years in this city.

I mail you a Manual giving our rules for gradation and promotion. I think they will answer all your questions, with the possible exception of the one relating to individual promotion. We advance individuals or classes whenever it is evident from the work of the children that their needs can be better served in the higher grade. I beg leave to call your attention also to our system of marking, which requires by its absence of definiteness, except in one point [that of attendances], a careful study of each child by the teacher.

VIII. From Miss Margaret W. Sutherland, for the Superintendent of Schools, Columbus, Ohio :

The most successful efforts to introduce the element of individuality into class work are not generally of the kind that can be tabulated under any given heads. I must admit that it is difficult for me to understand much of the discussion that is going on of this subject, for the reason that I know through all my public school course I was an individual to every teacher who taught me in a large class ; and I have taught for thirty years now in the public schools and have never failed to individualise every pupil under my care, although I have had experience in graded, high, and normal schools.

(*a*) All the teachers in the elementary schools of Columbus are professionally trained. In the Normal School the pupil teachers make studies of individual pupils in the practice schools and report to principal of Normal School and to teachers in training schools.

Teachers are encouraged, after they have their own schools, to talk with principals of buildings upon the mental and physical

ability of individual pupils, their habits of work, and any moral characteristics that should be noted.

(*b*) Each pupil is marked about once a week in the subjects in the course of study in the schools. Any pupil is advanced from one grade to another when it is found that he is not kept busy by the work of the lower grade and is capable, with a little extra effort on his part and a little wise assistance on the part of his teacher, of doing the work of the next higher class.

(*c*) All our teachers make much use of the question method in large classes, and many of them are very skilful in holding the attention of large classes by calling, not according to any system that pupils may understand, but by some device of their own, on almost every pupil of the class in a recitation period.

IX. From Mr. H. S. Bullard, Superintendent of Schools, Hartford, Connecticut :

A great and strenuous effort is made to come into vital touch with the individual pupil.

In our primary grades we have from six to eight groups or classes in each grade. In our next higher grades, say the fourth and fifth years after the beginning of the child's school life in elementary schools, we have four classes per grade. You can see that in this way there is no very great difference between the work of the one class and that of the next higher. It is therefore easy to promote individuals from one class into the next higher. We thus avoid, in large measure, the stilted and unnatural annual promotion. Indeed, far more than half our promotions, in the grades named, are individual, and are made whenever the individual seems able to do work in a higher class.

We have had this year more or less work done by a special teacher with pupils with peculiar needs. We hope to enlarge the scope of this work ; it is extremely valuable. Such work would partly counteract the evil influences of teaching masses of children together. I predict that such work will have a large growth in this country.

X. From Mr. F. R. Hathaway, Superintendent of Schools, Grand Rapids, Michigan :

No teacher below the high school has over forty pupils. These are divided into two classes. In the lower grades we introduce an interval of fifteen minutes between recitations. During this time

the teacher does individual work with the pupils. In some of our rooms we also have a system of promotion whereby pupils are graded every ten weeks. By this plan we are enabled to keep the class unit small and at the same time quite thoroughly homogeneous.

XI. From Miss Small, Supervisor of Grades, Elwood, Indiana :

Care is taken not to emphasise the thought of grading with the child. We wish him to give us his best work because he is interested in the subject, and not that he may be marked so much on it.

XII. The following account of ungraded classes is taken from Mr. Gilbert's report for 1900, as Superintendent of Schools at Newark, New Jersey :

I desire briefly to call attention to the peculiar conditions prevailing in the new Seventh Avenue School. It is in a district inhabited almost wholly by Italians, and presents very many difficulties. The pupils in each grade are of widely varying ages. Many have been in no school and some have attended parochial schools of their own race. The great majority are absolutely uncontrolled out of school, neither they nor their parents having a clear idea of proper conduct, of self-restraint, or of a wise use of freedom. When the school was first opened with an able principal and a good corps of teachers, the difficulty seemed almost insurmountable ; but patient and persistent effort has finally brought about greatly improved interest and improved attendance. The chief difficulty has been the necessary association in the same class of little children and older pupils, as so many of the older pupils cannot read any language and cannot speak English. The remedy which we have planned to provide for this is the opening of ungraded classes for the older pupils, in which they shall be treated as individuals and in which special work shall be furnished in manual training. Teachers are to be put in charge of these classes who have taken a course in manual training, and they will be furnished with the necessary equipment. I recommend that a certain number of manual training benches be placed in the vacant assembly room in such a way as not to interfere with the other uses of the hall, where the larger boys and girls can spend all of their spare time, acquiring manual skill and that self-control which comes from such work as manual training classes offer.

APPENDIX C

TEACHERS' TRAINING COURSES.

I

The following outline for a month's reading was contributed to the report on rural schools from Houston, Texas :

THOMAS ARNOLD (1795–1842).

A STUDY FOR RURAL TEACHERS.

We are to study this month the contributions of Thomas Arnold to educational doctrine and practice. One of the great biographies in English literature is Dean Stanley's 'Life of Thomas Arnold.' An American educator says that to become familiar with this biography marks an era in the life of a teacher. For material concerning Dr. Arnold's pedagogical work consult Oscar Browning's 'Arnold and Arnoldism' (*Foundations*, of February 1897), Payne's 'Lectures on Arnold' (pp. 129 and 261, Vol. IV., *Foundations*), 'Tom Brown at Rugby,' and Carlisle's abridgment of Stanley's 'Life of Arnold.'

The discussions to take place at the institute session, to be held on the 13th proximo, will be founded upon the following questions :

1. Give a brief biographical sketch of Arnold, calling especial attention to events having formative influence upon his character.
2. Describe the school at Rugby.
3. How did Arnold contribute toward dignifying the profession of teaching ?
4. What was his theory with respect to teaching morality ?
5. Compare Arnold's views concerning school management with the views advocated respectively by Locke and Herbert Spencer.
6. Prove : Arnold hated shams.
7. Discuss two excellent characteristics of his instruction.
8. What practical lesson with respect to self-government should the teacher learn from the study of Arnold ?
9. Of what feature of the modern English school would Arnold have entirely disapproved, and upon what grounds ?

10. To what one thing, above everything else, do you attribute Arnold's success?

11. Give in parallel columns a comparative view of the contributions made to educational history by Ascham, Locke, Spencer, and Arnold.

Then follow a number of brief quotations from Arnold, or educators whose utterances were in sympathy with his, bearing, directly or indirectly, upon the month's lesson.

II

NEW YORK STATE SCHOOL LIBRARY.

The New York Legislature of 1895, in an Act entitled, 'An Act for the Encouragement of Common Schools and Public Libraries,' authorised the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to establish a State school library for the benefit and free use of the teachers of the State. . . . The books selected embrace those bearing directly on the profession of teaching, with others relating to studies in psychology and the training of children, together with those referring to special studies in school. Particular attention has been given to the selection of works on civil government, political economy, and social and moral questions, as discussed by teachers with the children. Volumes on the natural sciences have been provided for popular use rather than for technical or professional reading. Care has been taken to provide, to a limited extent, books relating to history, general literature, and art.

Any teacher may have the use of the books of this library free of expense, except for postage and express, and he may purchase books from the list at a fixed price. (From Report of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, New York, 1896.)

III

LIST OF BOOKS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITIES.

(*From the Report of the Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools.*)

The committee has endeavoured to make out a list of books for study and reading for parents, teachers and pupils in the

country schools. It wishes to acknowledge the assistance of President F. W. Parker, of Professor L. H. Bailey, of Cornell University; Professor F. H. King, University of Wisconsin; and Professor D. L. Kiehle, of Minnesota.

Colonel Parker makes this suggestion: 'The mere reading or study of these books, without copious illustrations direct from nature, would be like reading any other books without experience back of them. My suggestion is this: that the books be read in connection with the study of nature. The teachers can easily make the right selections; for instance, the study of soils in the time of ploughing, the study of plants in the time of growth, &c. Specimens may be brought into the schoolroom, or better, the pupils may go to the specimens by field excursions.'

A list of about 120 books follows, drawn up with special reference to rural interests and so to the needs of country teachers. The list includes books on agriculture, horticulture, animal life, nature study, science, and miscellaneous writings of a more popular kind on related topics.

IV

BROOKLYN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

JOHN H. HAAREN, *President* (1898–99).

SPECIAL BULLETIN NO. 6.

Borough of Brooklyn, January 25, 1899.

TO BROOKLYN TEACHERS,—At the request of Dr. William H. Maxwell, City Superintendent of Schools, your attention is invited to a reprint of a circular recently issued by authority of the Board of Examiners.

CIRCULAR REGARDING TEACHERS' COURSES IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS OF LEARNING.

The following statement, issued by authority of the Board of Examiners, indicates the kind of work done by teachers in 'recognised institutions of learning,' that may be accepted by the Board

in lieu of examination, in whole or in part, in accordance with the By-laws of the Board of Education:

1. A course in literature, either in English or in a foreign language, should include a critical study of at least two masterpieces, e.g. one of Shakespeare's plays or one of Milton's or Tennyson's longer poems.

The note book presented as proof of successful study should contain, in addition to notes of the class work, an analysis of the works studied, and other evidence that the student has bestowed critical study upon them.

2. A course in English rhetoric or composition should include the writing, under direction, of frequent themes, reports or criticisms.

The evidence presented should include, in addition to notes of work in class, all the written work of the student.

3. A course in history should include the intensive study of a particular period or theme.

The evidence presented should include, in addition to notes of the class work, abstracts or outlines of passages to which the student was referred by the instructor, and any papers or studies prepared by the student as a part of the class work.

4. A course in physics or chemistry should embrace, in addition to lectures or other class work, at least twenty experiments performed by the individual student.

The note book presented should contain, in addition to notes of the class work, careful descriptions, accompanied, when possible, by drawings.

5. A course in botany or zoology should consist, for the most part, of laboratory or field work.

The note book presented should contain, in addition to notes of the class work, accurate descriptions of specimens examined and experiments performed. These descriptions should be illustrated by careful drawings.

6. A course of education should consist of (*a*) the principles of education; (*b*) the theory and practice of teaching; or (*c*) the history of education, including the study of at least two standard works on the subject selected.

The note book presented should contain, in addition to notes of the lectures or class work, abstracts of the works studied and passages referred to, plans of typical lessons, records of observations or experiments made, &c.

NOTE.—The statements of the instructors, regarding the record

made by their students, will have weight with the Board of Examiners in determining whether the work done will be regarded as satisfactory.

WILLIAM H. MAXWELL,
City Superintendent.

The course of study in the Association's classes embraces the essential features of the above requirements.

DR. EDWARD P. CROWELL, P.S. No. 36,
Chairman Committee on Lectures and Studies.

BROOKLYN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

JOHN H. HAAREN, *President* (1898–99).

SPECIAL BULLETIN NO. 7.

Borough of Brooklyn, N.Y., February 6, 1899.

CONFERENCES.

All teachers are cordially invited to attend the conferences of their respective grades.

To make these conferences productive of the largest benefits, free discussion of plans, methods and devices is urgently requested.

If teachers will forward to the leaders before the date of the conference statements of the chief difficulties which they encounter, these will be considered at the conference and methods of treatment suggested.

Nature and Language. Primary Grades. Prin. W. T. B. S. Imlay, P.S. No. 72.

Seventh primary grades	P.S. No. 19, Feb. 6, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 3, Feb. 7, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 15, Feb. 17, at 4 P.M.
Sixth and Fifth primary grades	P.S. No. 19, Feb. 14, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 3, Feb. 15, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 15, Feb. 20, at 4 P.M.

Nature.

Fourth and Third primary grades	P.S. No. 19, Feb. 27, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 15, Mar. 2, at 4 P.M.

Language.

Fourth and Third primary grades	P.S. No. 19, Mar. 6, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 15, Mar. 9, at 4 P.M.

Nature.

Second and First primary grades	P.S. No. 19, Mar. 13, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 15, Mar. 16, at 4 P.M.

Language.

Second and First primary grades	P.S. No. 19, Mar. 20, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 15, Mar. 27, at 4 P.M.

Arithmetic. Primary Grades. Prin. Chas. O. Dewey, P.S. No. 94.

Seventh, Sixth, Fifth primary grades[1]	P.S. No. 19, Feb. 16, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 3, Feb. 23, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 15, Mar. 2, at 4 P.M.
Fourth and Third primary grades	P.S. No. 19, Mar. 9, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 15, Mar. 15, at 4 P.M.
Second and First primary grades	P.S. No. 15, Mar. 23, at 4 P.M. P.S. No. 19, Mar. 30, at 4 P.M.

Mathematics. Grammar Grades. Prin. Arthur C. Perry, junr., P.S. No. 85.

Eighth grammar grades . .	P.S. No. 3, Mar. 1, at 4 P.M.
Seventh grammar grades . .	P.S. No. 3, Mar. 8, at 4 P.M.
Sixth grammar grades . . .	P.S. No. 3, Mar. 15, at 4 P.M.
Fifth grammar grades . . .	P.S. No. 3, Mar. 22, at 4 P.M.
Fourth grammar grades . .	P.S. No. 3, Mar. 29, at 4 P.M.
Third grammar grades. . .	P.S. No. 3, Apr. 5, at 4 P.M.
Second grammar grades . .	P.S. No. 3, Apr. 12, at 4 P.M.
First grammar grades . . .	P.S. No. 3, Apr. 19, at 4 P.M.

[1] Note that 'grades' here spoken of are not the same as the ordinary four primary and four grammar grades. They are evidently half-yearly divisions corresponding to the scheme in use in the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx (New York City).

Composition. Grammar Grades. Prin. Jos. V. Witherbee, P.S. No. 106.

Eighth, Seventh, Sixth, and Fifth grammar grades . . . { P.S. No. 19, Apr. 5, at 4 P.M. / P.S. No. 15, Apr. 12, at 4 P.M.

Fourth, Third, Second, and First grammar grades . . . { P.S. No. 19, Apr. 19, at 4 P.M. / P.S. No. 15, Apr. 26, at 4 P.M.

ILLUSTRATED LECTURE COURSE.

The first lecture in this course will be delivered by Mr. William McAndrew, P.S. No. 44, in the auditorium of the Boys' High School, Tuesday evening, February 14, at eight o'clock.

The subject will be 'The Mississippi Valley.' All teachers, whether members of the Association or not, are cordially invited, and are requested to use the coupon ticket on next week's bulletin.

(*Please keep this bulletin for reference.*)

DR. EDWARD P. CROWELL, P.S. No. 36,
Chairman Committee on Lectures and Studies.

APPENDIX D

SOME CHILD STUDY STATISTICS.

THE following is taken from the Report of the Department of Child Study and Pedagogic Investigation (July 1899 to July 1900) contained in the Forty-sixth Annual Report of the Board of Education of Chicago, 1899–1900 (Child Study Report No. 2):

I. From the Report of Committee on Child Study and Pedagogic Investigation (Dr. W. S. Christopher, Chairman):

Upon the recommendation of Dr. Frank Allport of this city, the Board, at its meeting of March 9, 1898, authorised an examination of the eyes and ears of all the school children of the city upon a plan devised by Dr. Allport, and used in numerous school systems throughout the country. Dr. Allport gave instruction to many teachers in the city upon the methods to be employed,

and the work was carried out the next school year. . . . Upon the recommendation of your committee, this work was, on April 4, 1900, put in the charge of this department, and Dr. Allport added to its staff as consulting oculist and aurist. Accordingly all the pupils were examined by their several teachers, and reports made to the director of this department. This work calls the attention of each teacher to the visual and aural defects of the children under her care, a knowledge of which facts on her part must be of great value, both to her and to the pupils. These examinations are to be repeated annually.

In the report of the preliminary investigation made last year attention was called to the wide diversity of physical development of the pupils in individual rooms, and it was pointed out that the classes in physical culture should be arranged upon a physical, instead of an intellectual basis, as is now done. Your committee recommends that efforts to secure such an arrangement of the classes in physical culture be made in the near future.

The preliminary investigation of last year established clearly that in each room there was a great range of physical capacity and endurance among the different pupils; it also established the fact that this differentiation constantly increased from the first grade to the eighth. It was also claimed that these facts called for increasing elasticity in the school work, and that such elasticity was especially called for in the upper grammar grades. The appended report of Director Smedley further supports this contention with some new and important facts. The desirability and necessity of such elasticity has long been recognised by progressive educators, and any adaptation of it must be of a purely pedagogical character. Your committee, therefore, recommends that the Superintendent of Schools be directed to investigate the matter and report such measures securing elasticity of work as may be found feasible. . . .

In all of the schools in which the child study corps was engaged in making observations instruction to the teachers was also given in child study. This part of the work might be advantageously extended, and could be if the corps should be increased by the addition of one or two more teachers. Such increase would in other ways materially strengthen the department and increase its usefulness.[1]

[1] The staff for 1899–1900 was a director with three assistants and one voluntary assistant, working in conjunction with a special committee of the Board of Education under the chairmanship of Dr. W. S. Christopher.

At the John Worthy School, attached to the Bridewell, measurements were made of 284 boys. By comparing the results of these measurements with the norms obtained by measuring normal children, it is found that the boys in the John Worthy School are inferior in all the physical measurements taken, and this inferiority seems to increase with age. While the number examined at the John Worthy School is not sufficient to warrant far reaching conclusions, it is to be noted that the general result of the examination fits with the general observations of those familiar with the boys at the school. As the population of the school is constantly changing, it will be possible to add rapidly to the number of boys examined, and thus obtain results which are reliable. If further investigation confirms the observation of physical inferiority of the boys who are sent to the John Worthy School, it will have far reaching results. Such physical inferiority means, broadly, malnutrition. While this is not the place to discuss the causes of malnutrition, social, hereditary, dietetic, infectious, &c., it seems right to remind the Board that the Parental School now in course of construction will be called upon to receive many of the boys who are now sent to the Bridewell in default of a more suitable place. In view, therefore, of the results of the measurements of the boys of the John Worthy School, your committee recommends that in the management of the Parental School the physical welfare of the inmates be made a matter of fundamental care, and that to this end great attention be paid to the dietary of the institution, that it be wholesome, nutritious, and sufficient; that provision be made for physical exercise, sufficient and not excessive in amount, and of a character adapted to the needs of the inmates; that ample and varied bathing accommodation be provided; that clothing adapted to the weather and the occupations of the school be supplied; and that the sleeping quarters be made thoroughly comfortable and hygienic.

At its meeting of April 4, 1900, the Board authorised the establishment of a psycho-physical laboratory in the department, and appropriated $250.00 for the purchase of apparatus. As soon as the apparatus could be got together the laboratory was opened in a partially unused room connected with the offices of the Board. The laboratory has been opened on Saturdays only, as upon other days the members of the corps have been engaged in their routine work in the schools. To the laboratory backward or difficult pupils may be brought from any school in the system,

by the principals, upon previous arrangement with the director of child study. Each pupil is subjected to a careful and thorough psycho-physical examination, and such advice given as the results obtained suggest to the trained psychologists in charge. Miss Luella Heinroth, the principal of the Schiller School, brought to the laboratory some fifteen backward pupils, and after obtaining the results of the thorough investigation of each of them, very wisely asked that an ungraded room be established in her school for their benefit. The necessary sanction of the Board was obtained through the recommendation of the School Management Committee, and the room will be in operation next session. In this connection your committee desires to call attention to the principles involved in the establishment of this particular ungraded room and to recommend that they be followed hereafter in establishing similar rooms. The principles referred to are the following :

1. Limitation of the maximum number of pupils in the room to twenty.

2. Requiring all pupils who are to be assigned to the room to be first examined in the child study laboratory.

3. Requiring the course of study used in such a room to be specially determined for such room by the superintendent of schools, the assistant superintendent of the district, and the director of child study.

4. Requiring that the teacher assigned to such room shall be experienced in actual teaching, and sufficiently versed in psychology and human anatomy, physiology and pathology to thoroughly understand and appreciate the results of the psycho-physical examination made in the laboratory, so that proper advantage may be taken of the results for the highest benefit of the pupils.

There will always be found in the school system a class of pupils who are so backward that they gain little or nothing from the ordinary course of instruction, and whose presence in the general class-room is distinctly detrimental to the remaining pupils, but who are yet not so deficient mentally as to justify sending them to the State Institution for the Feeble Minded. Such pupils must be cared for in the common schools, but justice to them and to the more normal pupils demands that the two classes be separated and the backward pupils placed in the so-called ' ungraded rooms.'

A conservative estimate of the number of such backward pupils in the Chicago schools would indicate that at least one ungraded

room should be established in every large school, say, possibly two hundred such rooms throughout the city. These backward pupils present a mixture of pedagogical, psychological, and medical problems of the highest interest and the greatest complexity, and require, for their proper management, teachers of the highest skill and broadest knowledge and training. It will naturally be difficult to find teachers possessing the necessary qualifications for such work, and your committee therefore recommends that the establishment of ungraded rooms be proceeded with slowly, and that steps be taken to establish in the Normal School courses of instruction, preferably post-graduate, for the training of teachers for ungraded rooms. . . .

Particularly is it desirable that research departments, similar to our own, be established in the school systems of other large cities, for in this way not only is the bulk of work done very rapidly increased, but the benefit of many minds at work at the same time on different types of problems is obtained. Private research is doing, and has done, much for psychology and child study, but it lacks the force and continuity of publicly supported research. In the medical sciences research has always lacked public support in English-speaking countries, while it has always received such support in the countries of continental Europe. The result has been that such of the new facts in these sciences as are of laboratory origin have mostly come from the Continent of Europe, and in this way great honour and advantage have accrued to those countries and to the professional workers there, while corresponding disadvantages have been the fate of biological workers in English-speaking countries. Educational interests, on the other hand, are remarkably well supported by public funds in this country. The schools are everywhere looked upon as the bulwark of the nation. The States generally have established minimum limits for the education of their children, and have provided means for the education of all, far beyond these limits. The State practically monopolises primary and secondary instruction. It seems only right, therefore, that the advancement of pedagogic knowledge should be a matter of public concern. So far as we are aware, your Board is the first public Board of Education to formally recognise these facts, and to establish in the school system under its charge a special department for pedagogic research. There is a pedagogic laboratory at Antwerp, Belgium, but whether it constitutes an exception to this statement we are unable to say.

In conclusion we give the following brief outline of the objects and functions of the Department of Child Study and Pedagogic Investigation :

1. RESEARCH WORK—

   a. Collecting anthropometric and psycho-physical data for the purpose of establishing norms, and for determining such relationships as may be of service in pedagogy.

   b. Applying accurate scientific methods to specific pedagogic problems, particularly methods of teaching and determination of the pedagogic value of various studies.

2. EXAMINATION OF INDIVIDUAL PUPILS with a view to advising as to their pedagogic management.

3. INSTRUCTION TO TEACHERS in child study and psychology.

II. From the report of Director Fred W. Smedley :

The results of the tests on each individual pupil were recorded on a card, the accompanying copy of which will serve to show the scope of the data collected.

The use of cards with one colour for the boys and another for the girls allows the quick compilation of the data in any manner desired by changing the grouping of the cards.

Up to date, tests have been made, in all, on 6,259 pupils, 2,788 boys and 3,471 girls. The pupils of the schools selected are largely of American parentage and are the children of parents in comfortable circumstances, so that they are uniformly well fed and clothed. Therefore, it is believed that they may be taken to represent normal Chicago children living under good conditions. From these tests and measurements tables of norms have been compiled. As we were obliged to compile the data several times, we have been able to watch the changes which added numbers have produced. These changes of the norms from the addition of the last set of cards representing the measurements of about fifty pupils of each year of age, between the ages of six and sixteen, have been so slight that it is believed that these norms are fairly representative of the class of pupils tested for these years. And probably large additions to these figures, if the data were taken from the same class of pupils, would but slightly change the averages thus established. The norms for the upper years, sixteen to twenty-one, and also for the kindergarten ages, four to six, on account of the paucity of numbers can hardly be considered so completely established

No.....

Name .....
Grade.....No. of weeks in this Grade .....
School .....Room No.....
Teacher .....
Date of birth—Year .....Month .....Day .....
Place of birth .....
Place of birth of father .....
Place of birth of mother.....
School Standing .....
Attention.....
Memory .....
Judgment .....
Best work is in .....
Poorest work is in.....
Deportment .....

Date.....		
Age		
Height with shoes.....		
Height of heel		
Net height		
Height sitting		
Weight with clothes		
Weight of clothing, est.....		
Net weight, est.....		
Ergograph—Hour.....		
Weight used		
Centimetres travelled		
Work—Centm. Kg.		
Duration of work		
Strength of Grip, R. H.		
" " L. H.		
Vital Capacity		
Audiometer, R.		
" L.		
Visual Acuity, R.		
" " L.		
Motor Ability.....		
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Birthday Norms.

In compiling these norms the age at the last birthday was used. It was assumed that the actual average age for any year

would be that year and about six months. When the average ages were made out it was found, as will appear in the table, that in some years the ages averaged above the half-year and in some below. In order to ascertain the norms for the exact years and half-years, the daily and monthly increments were calculated. The increment between any two average ages divided by the exact number of days between those ages gives the average daily increment, and this multiplied by thirty and five-twelfths gives the average monthly increment. In these tables, where the averages of the girls are greater than the averages of the boys for corresponding ages, the measurements have been printed in heavy-faced type.

These norms, computed to the integral years, are, for the sake of convenience, termed ' Birthday Norms.'

BIRTHDAY NORMS TRANSLATED INTO THE ENGLISH SYSTEM OF WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

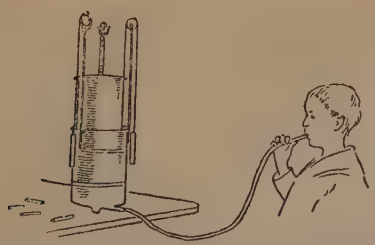
Boys.

Age.	Height.	Height Sitting.	Weight.	Ergo-graph.	Right-hand Grip.	Left-hand Grip.	Vital Capacity.
	Ins.	Ins.	Lbs.	Foot-lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Cubic ins.
6-0	43·58	24·57	43·52	6·33	20·30	18·70	62·403
6-6	44·59	25·02	45·59	7·58	21·98	20·48	66·856
7-0	45·60	25·46	47·66	8·84	23·68	22·29	71·248
7-6	46·61	25·90	49·72	10·09	25·38	24·08	75·701
8-0	47·61	26·28	52·52	11·15	27·36	25·73	80·276
8-6	48·61	26·66	55·31	12·22	29·35	27·41	84·912
9-0	49·66	27·09	58·07	13·53	31·62	29·70	89·609
9-6	50·71	27·50	60·83	14·85	33·89	31·99	94·367
10-0	51·54	27·79	63·30	15·92	36·43	34·38	97·783
10-6	52·38	28·06	65·76	16·99	38·96	36·73	101·199
11-0	53·20	28·39	68·85	18·22	41·56	39·07	105·652
11-6	54·02	28·72	71·92	19·45	44·17	41·45	110·166
12-0	54·94	29·06	75·30	20·52	46·83	43·46	114·863
12-6	55·87	29·40	78·68	21·61	49·51	45·46	119·560
13-0	57·30	30·02	83·98	23·82	53·89	49·63	128·588
13-6	58·70	30·63	89·27	26·02	58·28	53·80	137·677
14-0	59·82	31·19	94·14	28·41	62·67	57·81	146·095
14-6	60·93	31·75	99·02	30·79	67·03	61·82	154·513
15-0	62·24	32·36	105·82	34·01	73·62	68·09	164·617
15-6	63·55	32·95	112·63	37·24	80·22	74·37	174·460
16-0	64·59	33·64	117·39	39·89	86·81	80·24	190·320
16-6	65·62	34·32	122·15	42·52	93·38	84·08	206·180
17-0	66·10	34·71	126·53	44·90	98·65	90·31	212·463
17-6	66·56	35·10	130·91	47·28	103·94	94·52	218·746
18-0	67·42	35·55	135·14	49·18	108·67	99·24	222·955
18-6	68·28	36·01	139·36	51·06	113·40	103·98	227·225

Girls.

6–0	43·179	24·301	41·608	6·351	18·43	17·07	57·950
6–6	44·299	24·765	43·928	7·083	20·11	18·72	61·366
7–0	45·425	25·226	46·248	7·813	21·79	20·37	64·721
7–6	46·541	25·691	48·568	8·544	23·48	22·03	68·137
8–0	47·441	26·120	50·737	9·422	24·61	23·11	70·165
8–6	48·332	26·550	52·907	10·300	25·73	24·17	74·054
9–0	49·311	26·900	55·691	11·338	28·16	26·39	78·446
9–6	50·296	27·250	58·476	12·377	30·61	28·63	82·838
10–0	51·214	27·581	61·288	13·093	32·30	30·25	85·949
10–6	52·235	27·912	64·103	13·809	34·02	31·88	89·060
11–0	53·292	28·440	67·610	14·969	36·47	34·22	93·086
11–6	54·454	28·971	71·116	16·127	38·92	35·56	97·112
12–0	55·640	29·502	75·792	16·996	41·72	39·20	101·504
12–6	56·824	30·038	80·471	17·864	44·52	41·83	105·896
13–0	58·147	30·676	85·938	19·525	48·16	44·96	111·447
13–6	59·468	31·318	91·406	21·187	51·80	48·08	116·998
14–0	60·494	31·889	97·503	23·013	54·66	50·54	122·854
14–6	61·518	32·455	103·598	24·837	57·55	52·99	128·778
15–0	61·750	32·763	106·195	25·308	59·54	54·95	132·241
15–6	61·992	33·070	108·792	25·778	61·54	56·89	135·725
16–0	62·328	33·286	111·688	26·125	63·28	58·56	138·226
16–6	62·675	33·503	114·580	26·474	65·05	60·22	140·666
17–0	62·707	33·546	115·514	26·823	65·18	60·48	141·759
17–6	62·738	33·586	116·439	27·171	65·33	60·75	142·191
18–0	62·770	33·668	116·695	27·520	65·60	60·99	142·923
18–6	62·801	33·751	116·951	27·866	65·86	61·23	143·655

Development of Vital Capacity.



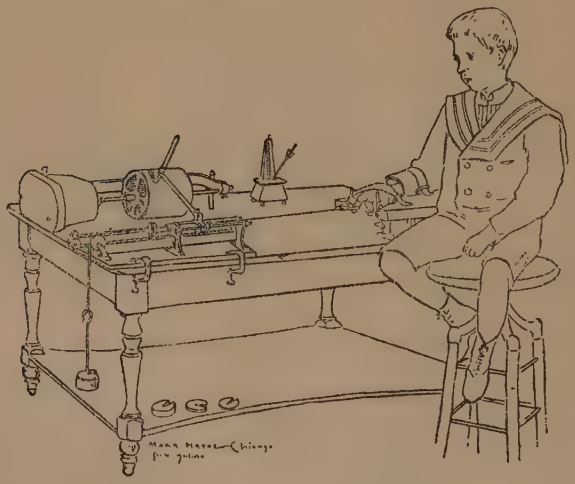
The term vital capacity is used here to signify the amount of air that a person can expire after a forced inspiration.

Vital capacity was tested by means of a wet spirometer.[1] In

[1] The spirometer as described by a writer in *Harmsworth's Magazine*, October 1900, 'consists of a sheet-metal cylinder, closed at one end and

this test, as in the test of strength, the child was allowed repeated trials until he fell short of his previous efforts and the best mark attained was recorded. The boys show greater breathing capacity from the first, the difference becoming marked during adolescence. The great breathing capacities of the boys who were in training for football, and the girls who played basket ball, were in strong contrast with those who took little physical exercise, which suggests that vital capacity increases and decreases with the amount of one's activity, and so, in connection with size, is an index of the rate of metabolism.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENDURANCE.



A modification of Mosso's ergograph made possible the study of endurance and fatigue. This instrument gives a graphic record and a measure of the work done under certain fixed conditions by a single group of muscles. The apparatus consists of two parts: a fixing board and a carriage with tracing apparatus mounted on a suitable frame. The arm is fastened firmly to the fixing board,

open at the other, which is immersed in a second cylinder containing water. The pupil who is being tested breathes into the immersed cylinder by blowing through a flexible tube. The lung capacity is recorded according to the height to which the cylinder is raised.'

allowing free movement to only the middle finger of the right hand. To this finger a cord is fastened which, passing to the carriage and over a pulley at the end of the stand, is attached to a weight. In each case, in these tests, this weight was 7 per cent. of the weight of the individual. In flexing the finger the weight is lifted and on extending the finger the weight returns to its original place. A pen, attached to the carriage and resting upon a kymograph, traces the movement thus made upon paper fastened to the revolving cylinder of the kymograph, and a moving tape line measures the distance which the weight has been lifted. This distance, multipled by the weight, gives the amount of work done. By keeping time with the beating of a metronome, these flexions and extensions of the finger are made at regular intervals, so that in ninety seconds, the time employed in each test, the weight would be lifted forty-five times. In operating the ergograph loaded thus with 7 per cent. o the gross weight of the individual, it was found that at some period between ninety and one hundred and fifty seconds such fatigue was usually produced as to render it impossible to move the weight at all. By limiting the work to ninety seconds a point was reached at which the strongest pupils would begin to show fatigue, and only the weakest and very obese pupils became entirely exhausted. It appears that boys have greater endurance than girls at all ages, and during adolescence the differentiation of the sexes becomes very striking. The charts of endurance and vital capacity bear a decided resemblance to each other. The comparison of the records an individual makes in endurance and vital capacity seems to show that they usually develop together.[1]

The Physical Concomitants of Dulness and Precocity.

The tests mentioned so far[2] are physical, but mental tests made by the teachers have been going on daily for years, and the pupils have been graded on an intellectual basis; and the psychological

[1] 'This unique apparatus reveals at once the nervous child, the child of high-strung temperament, and the child with irregular capacity for work.' (*Harmsworth's Magazine*, October 1900. The article contained illustrations of the tests and the apparatus employed.)

[2] The report from which these quotations are taken contains charts, tables of figures, and descriptive sections relating to growth in height (standing and sitting), growth in weight, the development of strength (grip of right and left hand), as well as to the points which have been selected for mention.

value of the tests is brought out when we compare the intellectual standing of the pupil with the result of the physical tests. For example, the twelve-year-old pupils are scattered throughout the grades of the elementary schools. Some are found in the second grade, some in the third, some in the fourth, some in the fifth, some in the sixth, some in the seventh, and some in the eighth. On compiling the results of the physical tests it is found that the twelve-year-old pupils of the higher grades are decidedly superior in stature, weight, strength, endurance, and vital capacity to those found in the lower grades. In Dr. Christopher's preliminary report similar tables and charts were given in demonstration of this problem. They were based upon the examination of only 138 pupils of the age of twelve, and 126 of the age of eleven. The charts here given are based upon the examination of 497 pupils of the age of twelve. The larger number of pupils serves to straighten out the curves and relieve them of much of the irregularity which small numbers are liable to produce. To show how decidedly this parallelism between physical superiority and mental capacity exists throughout school life, the pupils have been divided into two groups, those at or above the normal grade for that age, representing the brighter pupils, and those below the normal grade for that age, representing the backward pupils. The normal grade for a given age was found by subtracting six from the age; thus, a pupil of twelve years would normally be found in the sixth grade; if in the fifth or lower grade he would be classed as below grade; if in the sixth, seventh, or eighth, he would be classed as at or above grade.

That those below grade approach so closely to those at or above grade will be readily understood when we consider that the great majority of all the pupils are but little above or below grade, that is, but little removed from their normal grade.

The falling off of the lines [1] representing those at or above grade in the upper ages will naturally be explained on this basis. A few of the very brightest pupils, and so among the very best specimens physically for their age, graduate from the high school as early as sixteen and so leave a lowering of the average of the pupils found in the schools at seventeen and eighteen years and onward.

This demonstration of the physical superiority of the more intelligent pupils does not necessarily imply that small or weak

[1] These references to the charts are sufficiently clear without reproducing them in addition to the figures.

men are always less efficient mentally than are large men, but it does seem to show that one is likely to attain to his highest mental development only as he reaches the physical growth and development which nature has marked out for him. It suggests that those in charge of children should see that the normal conditions of growth and development are not interfered with. To the parent it suggests that he should keep wide open the path of growth for the child by securing the best conditions of food, shelter, and immunity from disease. Teachers are liable to interfere with the conditions of growth and development by subjecting the pupils to over stimulation, bad air, improper temperatures, and too limited an amount of physical exercise. Everywhere it should be borne in mind that childhood should be sacred to growth and development.

TWELVE-YEAR-OLD PUPILS BY GRADES.

Grade	No. Ex.	Av. Age	Av. Ht.	Av. Wt.	Av. Erg.	Av. Strength of Grip. Right Hand	Av. Strength of Grip. Left Hand	Av. Vital Capacity
			mm.	kg.	kg.-cm.	kg.	kg.	cu. cm.
II.	4	12-3-28	1333	29·513	233	16·75	16·50	1488
III.	19	12-5-23	1377	33·592	248·7	20·03	18·55	1732
IV.	84	12-5- 2	1403	34·972	271·3	20·22	18·85	1742
V.	134	12-5- 9	1422	35·596	268	21·06	19·64	1790
VI.	143	12-5-20	1443	36·136	271	21·40	20·12	1887
VII.	95	12-6-13	1451	37·150	283	22·31	20·41	1947
VIII.	18	12-6-29	1443	38·453	318·6	23·31	21·07	2053

Right-Handedness.

Educators have long been divided on the question of the desirability of attempting to develop ambidexterity in their pupils. One class maintains that 'all want of perfect bilateral symmetry looks away from perfect sanity,' that ambidexterity is the ideal condition, both in regard to the perfection of development and utility. The other class maintains that a high development can be given to one hand only, that the left hand plays the most useful part when it aids and supplements the action of the right. Most physical exercises prescribed for pupils from the kindergarten through the high school have aimed at overcoming the tendency to right-handedness, while penmanship and manual training have yielded to this tendency. This question, like most educational questions, can be rightly settled only upon the basis of child study investigation.

In the absence of any term corresponding to ambidexterity, and meaning unequal ability in the use of the hands without indication of which hand is the superior, the term unidexterity is suggested.

Children on the average are unidextrous, with the right hand superior at the time they enter school, and the unidexterity increases during the early years of adolescence. It has long been known by those who have made a study of the localisation of cerebral function that there is a connection between unidexterity and speech. J. Mark Baldwin from a study of his children has discovered a parallelism between the beginning of unidexterity and the beginning of speech in the development of the child. Does not the pubescent increase in unidexterity parallel the change of voice? In his report of last year Dr. Christopher intimated that the marked differentiation in the strength of the hands is a pubescent change, but the small number of pupils involved in the examination, and the consequent irregularities in the curves, forbade a definite assertion to that effect. The larger numbers involved in the present discussion justify the definite conclusion that the phenomenon is a true law of child life. . . .

The more advanced of the twelve-year-old pupils are more decidedly unidextrous than are the backward pupils of that age. This association between decided unidexterity and intellectual power holds good throughout school life. . . . On the whole, the brightest are more decidedly unidextrous than are the average pupils, the average pupils are more unidextrous than are the dull pupils, and they in turn are more decidedly unidextrous than are the pupils of the John Worthy School.

Defective Vision and School Standing.

As to the influence of defective vision on school standing, it appears that on the average a smaller per cent. of the pupils at and above grade have defective sight than those below grade. The fact that the reverse is true during the first two years led to an investigation which gave quite conclusive evidence that the increase in eye defects during the first years of school life is due, in part at least, to school conditions. It will be seen that eight- and nine-year-old pupils who have made the best advancement have the greater per cent. of eye defects. On investigation it was found that the more advanced pupils in this case had on the whole started going to school younger, and this longer time at school is believed to account for both the advanced standing and the increased number of those who are subnormal in visual acuity.

SCHOOL STANDING AND SIGHT.

Age.	Number Tested.	Per Cent. Defective.
8	At and above grade 296	40
	Below grade 65	32
9	At and above grade 245	47
	Below grade 98	34
	John Worthy School 2	00
10	At and above grade 220	39
	Below grade 144	48
	John Worthy School 10	80
11	At and above grade 172	39
	Below grade 213	43
	John Worthy School 24	50
12	At and above grade 185	34
	Below grade 179	40
	John Worthy School 54	46
13	At and above grade 206	27
	Below grade 167	33
	John Worthy School 47	55
14	At and above grade 321	32
	Below grade 129	33
	John Worthy School 65	52
15	At and above grade 436	32
	Below grade 85	34
	John Worthy School 51	30
16	At and above grade 256	31
	Below grade 219	32
	John Worthy School 24	54
17	At grade. 178	30
	Below grade 161	33
	John Worthy School 7	29

The table in reference to Hearing and School Standing shows the decided disadvantage at which the child with poor hearing is placed.

Three or More Points below Normal.	Four or More Points below Normal.	Five or More Points below Normal.
With one ear ..... 25·3 per cent.	16·8 per cent.	12·2 per cent.
With both ears..... 12·3 per cent.	6·8 per cent.	3·2 per cent.

From this table it appears that there are a large number of pupils whose two ears differ in hearing power. These will be at a decided disadvantage if seated on the wrong side of the room.

HEARING AND SCHOOL STANDING.

Pupils having One or Both Ears Defective to Four Points below Normal.

Age.	Number Tested.		Number Defective.	Per Cent. Defective.
8	Above grade	138	25	18·1
	Below grade	85	22	25·8
9	Above grade	107	18	16·8
	Below grade	141	32	22·6
	John Worthy School	2	0	0
10	Above grade	101	6	5·9
	Below grade	178	40	22·4
	John Worthy School	10	3	30
11	Above grade	77	10	12·9
	Below grade	205	48	23·4
	John Worthy School	24	2	8·3
12	Above grade	118	10	8·4
	Below grade	242	45	18·5
	John Worthy School	54	12	22·2
13	Above grade	145	20	13·7
	Below grade	213	34	15·7
	John Worthy School	47	10	21·3
14	Above grade	248	32	12·9
	Below grade	176	36	20·4
	John Worthy School	65	18	27·7
15	Above grade	164	32	19·5
	Below grade	145	32	22
	John Worthy School	51	7	13·7
16	Above grade	93	12	12·8
	Below grade	239	38	15·9
	John Worthy School	24	3	12·5
17	Above grade	61	9	14·7
	Below grade	162	27	16·6
	John Worthy School	7	2	28·6
18	At grade	75	13	16
	Below grade	91	23	25·2

Conclusions.

Many of the tests and measurements which this department has made are preliminary to other investigations, which, it is suggested, should be carried on in reference to different lines of mental development, methods of instruction, and school adjustments. It is believed that the utility of much of the work so far done will best appear as it forms a basis for these future investigations and compilations ; yet there are certain truths important for educational theory and practice which have been so clearly foreshadowed as to warrant their being set forth here.

From the investigations of last year Dr. Christopher formulated the following deductions :

1. In general there is a distinct relationship in children between physical condition and intellectual capacity, the latter varying directly as the former.

2. The endurance (ergographic work) of boys is greater than that of girls at all ages, and the difference seems to increase after the age of nine.

3. There are certain anthropometric indications which warrant a careful and thorough investigation into the subject of co-education in the upper grammar grades.

4. Physical condition should be made a factor in the grading of children for school work, and especially for the entrance into the first grade.

5. The great extremes in physical condition of pupils in the upper grammar grades make it desirable to introduce great elasticity into the work of these grades.

6. The classes in Physical Culture should be graded on a physical instead of an intellectual basis.

The work this year, so far as it relates to them, confirmed these deductions, except as to the age when great differentiation of the sexes in endurance begins. To these certain other conclusions are added, not as settled beyond any possibility of modification, but yet as being fairly indicated by these tests.

1. The pubescent period is characterised by great and rapid changes in height, weight, strength of grip, vital capacity, and endurance. There seems to accompany this physical activity a corresponding intellectual and emotional activity. It therefore is a period when broad educational influences are most needed. From the pedagogic standpoint it is pre-eminently a time for character building.

2. The pubescent period is characterised by extensive range of all physical features of the individuals in it. Hence, although a period fit for great activity of the mass of children, it is also one of numerous individual exceptions to this general law. During this period a greater per cent. of individuals than usual pass beyond the range of normal limits set by the mass. It is a time, therefore, when the weak fail, and the able forge to the front, and hence calls for a higher degree than usual of individualisation of educational work and influence.

3. Unidexterity is a normal condition. Rapid and marked accentuation of unidexterity is a pubescent change. On the whole, there is a direct relationship between the degree of unidexterity and the intellectual progress of the pupil. At any given age of school life, bright or advanced pupils tend toward accentuated unidexterity, and dull or backward pupils tend toward ambidexterity. The pupils of the John Worthy (Bridewell) School are more nearly ambidexterous than even the backward pupils of the ordinary schools. Training in ambidexterity is training contrary to a law of child life.

4. Boys of school age at the Bridewell are inferior in all physical measurements to boys in the ordinary schools, and this inferiority seems to increase with age.

5. Defects of sight and hearing are more numerous among the dull and backward pupils. These defects should be taken into consideration in the seating of pupils. Only by removing the defects can the best advancement of the pupils be secured.

6. The number of eye and ear defects increases during the first years of school life. The causes of this increase should be investigated and as far as possible removed.

7. There are certain parts of the school day when pupils, on the average, have a higher storage of energy than at other periods. These periods should be utilised for the highest forms of educational work.

8. The stature of boys is greater than that of girls up to the age of eleven, when the girls surpass the boys and remain greater in stature up to the age of fourteen. After fourteen, girls increase in stature very slowly, and very slightly, while boys continue to increase rapidly until eighteen.

9. The weight of the girl surpasses that of the boy about a year later than her stature surpasses his, and she maintains her superiority in weight to a later period of time than she maintains her superiority in height.

10. In height sitting, girls surpass boys at the same age as in stature, viz. eleven years, but they maintain their superiority in this measurement for one year longer than they do in stature, which indicates that the more rapid growth of the boy at this age is in the lower extremities rather than in the trunk.

11. Commencing at the age of thirteen, strength of grip in boys shows a marked accentuation in its rate of increase, and this increase continues as far as our observations extend, viz. to the age of twenty. In girls no such great acceleration in muscular strength at puberty occurs, and after sixteen there is little increase in strength of grip. The well-known muscular differentiation of the sexes practically begins at thirteen.

12. As with strength of grip so with endurance as measured by the ergograph, boys surpass girls at all ages, and this differentiation becomes very marked after the age of fourteen, after which age girls increase in strength and endurance but very slightly, while after fourteen boys acquire almost exactly half of the total power in these two features which they acquire in the first twenty years of life.

13. The development of vital capacity bears a striking resemblance to that of endurance, the curves representing the two being almost identical.

Having the distinct sanction and approval of the Chicago Committee for use of their report, the writer does not think his readers will require an apology for so long an appendix. The whole study bristles with points of interest, only a few of which have been referred to in the text.

III. The following card is issued by the Board of Education controlling the Sioux City Public Schools:

Record of Pupil's Chief Characteristics.

Pupil's Name . . . . . .

Date . . . . . *Age* . . . . . *Nationality* . . . . . .

	1899–1900			1900–1901			1901–1902		
	First Month	Fifth Month	Ninth Month	First Month	Fifth Month	Ninth Month	First Month	Fifth Month	Ninth Month
Health									
Temperament (nervous, equable, sluggish, &c.)									
Grade									
If Behind Grade. Why?									
General Ability (excellent, medium, poor)									
Sight (good or defective)									
Hearing (good or defective)									
Observation (excellent, medium, poor)									
Memory — Verbal (excellent, medium, poor)									
Memory — Thought (excellent, medium, poor)									
Imagination (vivid, medium, weak)									
Thought (strong, medium, weak)									
Feeling through which to govern									
Self Control (excellent, medium, weak)									
Sense of Right (excellent, medium, weak)									
Use of Language (excellent, medium, poor)									
Subject of Deepest Interest									
Chief Characteristic (timid, rash, &c.)									
Greatest Deficiency									

Fill out the blanks at top of sheet during the first two weeks; the remaining blanks at the close of the first month, or as soon as the characteristics called for can be learned. Where words are enclosed in parenthesis as 'excellent,' 'medium,' 'poor,' &c., E., M., P. can be used in blanks.

Add to the record any changes which may be noticed under any of the characteristics called for. If none can be noticed then draw a line in the space.

The principal object sought is to lead teachers to study each pupil as an individual, note his characteristics, and thus be able to plan for and attain definite results, and to secure the proper development of the individual pupil.

APPENDIX E

New scheme of electives for the Chicago High Schools, passed by the Board of Education, May 1900 :

A report of the committee recommending that modifications in the programme of studies of the high schools, and the administration thereof, be adopted to take effect at the opening of schools in September.

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES.

With data for making the work of the high schools more elastic, more practical, and better adapted to the needs and aptitudes of the individual.

Languages.—English, Latin, French, German, Spanish, Greek.

Mathematics.—Elementary algebra, plane geometry, higher algebra, solid geometry, trigonometry.

History.—Mythology and ancient history, mediæval and modern European history, English history, American history and civics.

Sciences.—Physical geography, physiology (as required by law), biology, zoology and botany (or zoology or botany), physics, chemistry, geology and astronomy.

Commercial.—Commercial geography, commercial law, commercial arithmetic, bookkeeping, stenography, typewriting, economics.

Miscellaneous.—Drawing, vocal music, physical culture, manual training (one year) wherever practicable, and household science (sewing and cooking) wherever practicable.

Pupils who are desirous to enter the normal school to prepare for teaching shall take a full course of English grammar, language, and literature, with special attention to present usage ; a two years' course in one and the same foreign language ; two courses in history, one of which shall be United States history, and civics ; two courses in mathematics ; two sciences in addition to physiology, each of which shall cover work assigned to one year ; and drawing, vocal music, and physical culture. Studies may be selected for remaining credits.

Opportunities will be given for preparation for any college or technical school, if a desire for such preparation is made known

early in the curriculum, or not later than the beginning of the second year.

Pupils not preparing for the Normal School nor for college, but who desire to graduate, may make a judicious selection from the programme of studies, with the advice and approval of parents and principal, except that the study of the English language and literature shall be required of all pupils one-half of the curriculum ; and that those pupils who do not take a foreign language after the second year shall continue English throughout the curriculum : also one and the same foreign language for two years, one year of algebra, one year of history, and one year of science.

Pupils regularly admitted to the high school who are not candidates for a diploma, may, at the request of parents or guardians, select such studies as are not in advance of their attainments, and continue them so long as they maintain an average record with the class.

A complete curriculum shall consist of fifteen credits, one credit to be given for a study pursued successfully five days a week for forty weeks ; fractional credits for studies pursued a proportionately less time.

When a curriculum is completed, the pupil will be entitled to a diploma, which shall state the studies pursued and the length of time each has been taken.

Pupils who shall have taken a full quota of studies for two years and pursued them successfully shall receive a certificate stating the studies taken and amount of work accomplished.

Any pupil of marked ability who shall accomplish any piece of valuable work along the lines of individual research, and shall submit the same with conclusive evidence that the work is original and the results valuable, the work to be done during the last two years of the curriculum, shall receive such credit or credits for this work toward graduation as it shall be worthy of in the judgment of the principal and teachers. No credit will be given for a study which would generally occupy a year until such study is completed. Pupils will not be allowed to take a study which is a natural sequence of one which has not been successfully pursued. Pupils entering the first year will not be expected to take more than one foreign language, unless able to enter an advanced class in the second language. No pupil will be allowed to pursue a study which is in advance of his attainments. The programme of the studies will be so arranged that difference in the capacity, application, and health of the pupil will be considered. Those of

good health and unusual ability will be enabled to complete a curriculum in less time than those whose health and capacity make it wise for them to proceed more slowly.

In schools of five hundred pupils or less no class will be organised with less than fifteen pupils, and in schools of over five hundred less than twenty pupils. Whenever in schools of less than five hundred pupils the number of pupils in any class shall fall below ten, such subject shall be discontinued, and pupils will be permitted to attend the nearest school where such subject is pursued ; the same course will be followed in schools of over five hundred pupils, when the number in a class shall fall below fifteen. The maximum number in any class shall not exceed forty, except in extraordinary cases.

Whenever a pupil or class of pupils shall have completed the course in any study in less than the average time assigned to that study, such pupil or pupils shall receive the full benefit of the time saved ; and whenever pupils require or take more than the average time, such time will not be credited in the work required for the completion of the curriculum.

Pupils will be admitted to the high schools regularly in September and February, and at other times when fully prepared, and the classes in the high schools are so arranged as to conveniently receive them.

Pupils must have been in attendance at least one year before taking the subjects of bookkeeping, commercial arithmetic, stenography, and typewriting.

The daily marking system will not be required except as a matter of special convenience in special cases.

The result of occasional tests, written or oral, together with the unbiassed judgment of the teacher, with the approval of the principal, may constitute the basis upon which proficiency is reckoned.

Parents or guardians will be informed once in two months, or oftener, as occasion may arise, when pupils, by reason of lack of health, capacity, application, or other cause, do not do satisfactory work, and a request made for a conference, for the purpose of lessening the number of studies, changing them, or in other ways arranging to make the school profitable to the pupil.

Principals will arrange programmes and classes so that the brighter pupils may not be unduly hindered in their progress, nor others be impelled to advance more rapidly than their health, application, or ability will permit.

APPENDIX F

I

MOTHERS' CLASSES OF THE CHICAGO KINDERGARTEN COLLEGE, 10 VAN BUREN STREET.

Begin October 6, 1897.

Classes Weekly ; Two Hours in each Session :

1st Year's Class, Wednesday, 10 to 12 A.M.
2nd Year's Class, Thursday, „
3rd Year's Class, Friday, „

1st Hour : Conversational Lectures on the Principles Underlying the Normal Development of Children, which will assist mothers to a better understanding of their children and give them a scientific basis for their training. Class conducted by Miss Jean Carpenter.

2nd Hour : Gifts, Occupations, Stories, and Games, all adapted to use in the home, for the purpose of giving to the mother added resources with her children, and to enable her to enter more completely into their lives. Class conducted by Miss Grace Fulmer. Miss Elizabeth Harrison will frequently be present at these classes and give suggestions.

Tuition, per year	$10.00
Tuition, per half-year	5.00

MOTHERS' CLASS.

Lecture Topics for First Year.

I. How to Understand the Child by Comparing the Different Stages of His Growth with the Different Stages of the Development of the Race.

II. { The Child's Activity as a Means of Growth.
What to Do with Restless or Destructive Children.

III How to Develop Self-Reliance and Individuality in the Child and Train the Will in Right Directions.

IV. Logical Punishments : a Cure for the Wrong Deed.
Illogical Punishments : the Cause of Resentment and Obstinacy.

V. Why a Child Imitates and How this Instinct may be Used in the Forming of Right Habits.

VI. What it Means when the Child Seeks to Know the Why and Wherefore of Things and How His Questions Should be Met.

VII. What is True Temperance and How May it be Inculcated at an early age?

VIII. Play, an Important Factor in the Child's Education.
Right and Wrong Kinds.

IX. The Necessity of Punctuality to Develop a Strong Character.
How to Obtain it.

X. What We Owe to the World and What the World Owes to Us ; How Can We Help the Child to Realize this?

Lecture Topics for Second Year.

I. How to Guide the Child's Impulses and Emotions. Sympathy Must be Put into Action to Save the Child from Becoming Sentimental.

II. How Can We Reconcile Freedom and Obedience in the Child?

III. The Child's Need of the Myth and Symbolic Story—Santa Claus and Christmas.

IV. Awakening in the Child a Sense of His Own Responsibility.

V. How to Make Home Dear to Children.

VI. How to Deepen the Child's Affection : First for the Members of Home, and Thence for All Humanity.

VII. The Importance of Inspiring the Child with Right Ideals.

VIII. The Unfolding of the Art Impulse in Little Children.

IX. The Effect of Music on the Emotions.
How to Select the Right Kind.

X. The Training of the Colour Sense.

Lecture Topics for Third Year.

Froebel's Five Knights, or How to Meet and Utilize for Good the Child's Love of Appreciation and Praise.

The Light Songs, or the Training of Conscience and the Spiritual Nature.

The Shadow Songs, or the Place of Evil in the World and the Mission of Mistakes.

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The Question Box, instituted for the benefit of Mothers with 'Individual Problems,' will be opened once a month and the questions placed therein will be placed before the class.

Branch Classes conducted by the College in other cities and towns.

II

THIRD ANNUAL CONVOCATION OF MOTHERS

To be held in Handel Hall, 40 Randolph Street,

November 11, 12, 13, 1896,

UNDER THE AUSPICES OF THE

CHICAGO KINDERGARTEN COLLEGE.

Programme.

Wednesday Morning.

I.	Physical Environment of Infancy .	Mrs. J. H. Van Vlissingen.
II.	The Child in the Home . . .	Mrs. Fred Bagley.
III.	Spiritual Environment of Children .	Rev. L. P. Mercer.
IV.	Influence of the Nursery-Maid on the Future Life of the Child . .	Mrs. Harriet C. Robbins.
V.	Need of Raising the Standard for those who are to be entrusted with the care of Children . . .	Rev. W. B. W. Gallwey.
VI.	Necessity of Separation between Mother and Child . . .	Mrs. H. A. Kasten.
VII.	Co-operation of Mother and Teacher and the necessity of Insight on the part of the Mother to bring about more Ideal Conditions . . .	Mrs. W. H. Chappell.

Wednesday Afternoon.

I.	Pedagogical Study of Early Childhood	Julia E. Bulkley.
II.	Growth and Unfolding of the Child's Mental Faculties	Prof. John Dewey.

III. The Use of the Law of Continuity in the Development of the Child . Amalie E. Hofer.
IV. Is Spontaneity opposed to Law in School and Kindergarten? . . . Mrs. Alice H. Putnam.
V. The Imagination and its Relation to Right Conduct . . . . . Mrs. Marion Foster Washburn.

Wednesday Evening.

A Reception will be given to the Convocation by the Mothers' Department of the Chicago Kindergarten College, in the College Building, 10 Van Buren Street, from 8 to 10 o'clock. During the evening Miss Josephine C. Locke will give a brief address upon, 'How to Help Children to see Beauty in Nature and Art.'

Thursday Morning.

I. Educational Value of the Kindergarten Occupations . . . . Bertha Payne.
II. Gift Lessons . . . . . Meredyth Woodward.
III. Value of Symbolic Stories . . Jean Carpenter.
IV. Symbolic Story of the 'Little Mill Window' . . . . . Grace Fulmer.
V. The use of Kindergarten Games in the Development of the Child . . Mrs. Mary Boomer Page.

Thursday Afternoon.

I. How can we best secure Interest and Love for Study in Children . . Prof. Charles McMurray.
II. How to Inspire Children with a Love for Great Literature . . . Mr. Orville T. Bright.
III. Discussion of Practical Questions.

Thursday Evening.

I. Children's Eyes . . . . . Dr. Albert S. Gray.
II. A Hint on Physical Culture . . Prof. S. H. Clark.
III. Rhythm . . . . . Anne E. Allen.
IV. Reflex Action of Habitual Bearings and Attitudes upon Thought . Mrs. Frances Parker.
V. Growth . . . . . Dr. Bayard Holmes.
VI. Senescence . . . . . Dr. Colin Scott.

Friday Morning.

I. Why we study Froebel's Mutter und Kose-Lieder . . . . Mary C. McCulloch.

II.	How to study Froebel's Mutter und Kose-Lieder	Jean Carpenter.
III.	Symbolic Education	Mrs. Ruth Morris Kersey.
IV.	Kindergarten Psychology	Prof. Denton J. Snider.

Friday Afternoon.

I.	Piano Solo	Gertrude Smith.
II.	Unconscious Musical Education	Eleanor Smith.
III.	'Take Ye away the Stone'	Prof. Calvin B. Cady.
IV.	Children's Songs	Bertha Kaderly.
V.	The Child Voice	Prof. W. L. Tomlins.

Friday Evening.

I.	National Holidays and Festival Days	Anna E. Bryan.
II.	The Need of Reverence and How to Inculcate It	Mrs. Andrew McLeish.
III.	The Child of To-day—The Citizen of To-morrow	Col. Francis Parker.
IV.	The Kindergarten—The Renaissance of Christianity	Rev. Frank W. Gunsaulus.

Morning Sessions will begin at 10 o'clock A.M. Afternoon Sessions, 2 P.M. Evening Sessions, 8 P.M.

All Sessions will be held in Handel Hall, 40 Randolph Street, except the Wednesday evening Reception, which will be given at the College Building, 10 Van Buren Street.

Admission Free.

APPENDIX G

Report on Home Study, presented to the Board of Public Education of Philadelphia by Dr. Edward Brooks, Superintendent of Public Schools:

1. In the first grade I would require no home work at all.

2. In the second grade I would require no definite home work. The child may, however, at the option of the teacher, take home a reading book and let his parents see what progress he is making in learning to read. A few new words may be assigned for the next day's lesson, and an occasional exercise in learning the 'elementary results' of the 'fundamental rules' may not be objectionable.

3. In the third grade a small amount of home work may be required by the teacher. This may consist of exercises in spelling and in the 'arithmetical tables,' or, during the last half of the year, of a lesson in geography and a simple exercise in arithmetic. A reading book at home is often interesting to children and their parents, and the copying of a few sentences from the reader is a valuable exercise. If any such work is assigned by the teacher, not more than two subjects should be given for any one day, and the amount should be such that the time required shall not exceed one half-hour.

4. In the fourth grade I think it well to assign some definite work to be done at home. The subjects which I think suitable for home work are: Geography, arithmetical tables, language, including spelling and the copying and committing of choice extracts in prose and poetry, and one or two simple exercises in arithmetic. From this list not more than three subjects should be assigned for the home work of any one day, and the time required should not exceed three-fourths of an hour.

5. In the fifth grade I would assign home work as a part of a child's regular school duties. The subjects from which a selection can be appropriately made are as follows: Geography, history, language, including spelling and the copying and committing of choice extracts in prose and poetry, and arithmetic, this last subject being limited to one or two simple exercises. Not more than three subjects should be assigned for the home work of any one day, and the time required should not exceed one hour.

6. In the sixth grade home study should also be regularly assigned. The subjects suitable for such work in this grade are: Language, including the copying and committing of extracts, arithmetic, geography, history, and physiology. The work in arithmetic should be limited to one or two simple examples. Not more than three subjects should be assigned for the home work of any one day, and the time required should not exceed one hour and a quarter.

7. In the seventh grade home work should also be regularly assigned. The subjects suitable for such work are: Language, arithmetic, geography, history, physiology, and drawing. The amount of home work in each branch, and especially in arithmetic and drawing, should be carefully limited by the teacher. Not more than three subjects should be assigned for the home work of any one day, and the time required should not exceed an hour and a half.

8. In the eighth grade home work should also be regularly required. The subjects include all the branches studied in this grade, viz. : Language, mathematics, geography, history, physiology, civics, and drawing. Not more than three subjects should be assigned for the home work of any one day, and the time should be limited from one and a half to two hours.

The times named indicate maximum limits of time for the average child, and I think it would be a mistake to transcend these limits. I desire to say further that while fixing these maximum limits so as to prevent teachers from overburdening pupils with home work, it is not meant that all pupils should be required to do home work up to these limits. The amount within these limits is to be determined by circumstances of which the principal and his teachers are to be the judges. Neither is it intended that pupils are to be marked for the time they devote to home study or for any exercises done out of school hours. Home work is designed to prepare a pupil for the work of the class-room, and a pupil's standing is to be determined entirely by his mental development and the knowledge of the various branches of study as shown in the recitation.

The value of the independent and unaided study of text-books should not be overlooked in the education of children. The preparation of lessons will cultivate the habits of reading and study, which are invaluable not only to the student but to the individual in after life. The neglect of this in the elementary schools will be especially apparent in the higher schools, and involve a loss of time there in training pupils to the habits of study.

In addition to this it should be remembered that there is a moral element in home study, as it tends not only to habits of industry, but also serves to keep children off the streets at night, and thus prevents associations that lower the moral tone if they do not lead to actual wrong-doing. The street is often the school of vice, and the home and the schoolroom should join hands in counteracting or preventing its demoralising influence.

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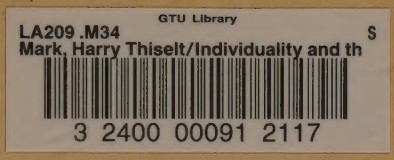

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